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Enhancement and verification among newly married couples

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Enhancement and verification among newly married couples

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Abstract

Traditionally, self-enhancement and self-verification are seen as competing motives. This presumption has typically resulted in tests of people's preference between them rather than an examination of their unique effects. The current study seeks to differentiate between the effects of self-enhancement and self-verification for measures of individual self-esteem and trust in one's spouse. Results indicate that separate unique effects do exist on self-esteem for wives, but only an effect for self-verification was found for husbands. In contrast, neither variable was found to exert an effect on wives' or husbands' trust in their spouse. The theoretical implications of these findings, along with some potential limitations, are discussed.

Chapter 1. Introduction

One of the strongest and most enduring types of relationships individuals enter over the course of their lives is marriage. Giving advice about what creates a long and happy marriage and counseling individuals when it breaks down are both thriving industries. A primary point emphasized in both involves how often and in what ways a couple communicates with one another. Frequently the communication involves feedback from one spouse to the other--sometimes spontaneous, but often solicited. The feedback can be in response to a simple, "How do I look in this?" to the more complex, "Do you find me to be a worthwhile person?" Regardless of the question, individuals typically choose between an honest and accurate assessment, or a more positive and flattering response. Most desire a harmonious marriage and give answers intended to make a spouse happy and increase trust. Both approaches should have an impact on self-esteem and trust. If there is a fundamental need to belong (Baumeister and Leary 1995), and if self-esteem is a gauge of social relationship inclusion status (Leary et al. 1995), then positive and enhancing marital communication (reflecting an appraisal of the spouse as an attractive and desirable partner) should increase self-esteem. It should also increase trust. A positive, enhancing appraisal from a spouse should increase feelings of predictability, dependability, and faith in the future of the relationship (Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna 1985). For individuals who like their spouse, there is reason to believe the partner has benevolent, trustworthy intentions toward them. On the other hand, negative, deprecating communication from a spouse (reflecting an appraisal of the spouse as an unattractive and costly partner) should lower self-esteem and trust.

A large body of marriage research supports the above contentions. For instance, Gottman (1994) suggests that positive information is pivotal, and the ratio of positive to negative exchanges is directly predictive of discord. Research on self-enhancement further suggests that people are primarily interested in positive feedback, and the more positive the better (Alicke and Sedikides 2009). Self-enhancement research suggests spouses are interested in positive feedback only, regardless of whether it matches his or her view of "objective" reality. A closely related and cornerstone issue comes from self-help literature that contends even "little white lies" are toxic to a healthy marriage. Resolving this contradiction would illuminate an important theoretical point, and perhaps more importantly help spouses determine what answer is least likely to result in them sleeping on the couch.

Advice found in much of the self-help literature suggests that honesty or accurate feedback results in successful and presumably happy marriages(Smalley and Smalley 1993; Wright 2000). One is left questioning whether individuals are generally inclined to seek accurate information. In this instance *accurate* is defined as how individuals see themselves, rather than objective, accurate information. The literature on self-verification supports this contention. Especially in the context of an enduring relationship, such as marriage, self-verification may be more important than self-enhancement (Kwang and Swann 2010). Whether a spouse's appraisal is overly idealized or overly deprecating in comparison to one's self-view, the failure to self-verify results in distress and feelings of in authenticity. Failure to self-verify lowers self-esteem and damages trust; it means the spouse has failed to recognize and accept the self (Cast and Burke 2002), lending support to the practice of giving verifying feedback to one's spouse—and the safest option.

Overall, self-enhancement findings suggest that spouses are only interested in positive information, regardless of a situation's objective reality or how they feel about themselves. This agrees with much of the common wisdom about giving feedback, especially to one's spouse, but flies in the face of the honesty proposed by self-verification that so many suggest is the only way to ensure a long and happy marriage.

It is important to be aware of two points. First, depression has been shown to be closely related to the outcomes of interest, as well as how self-enhancement and self-verification are related to them(Katz and Beach 1997; Peterson and Seligman 1984). There is indication that depression can elicit an expectation of negative appraisal from a spouse, blunting the effects of self-enhancement. Alternatively, self-verification may not be as influenced by depression since it is typically characterized as more cognitive than emotional (Swann et al. 1987). Subsequently, to add clarity to the current study it is important that depression be explored both as a moderator and covariate.

Secondly, the close connection that develops in a romantic relationship like marriage carries the potential for both desirable and undesirable feedback, and can have consequences not only for the individual receiving it but the one supplying it. Consequently, the current study seeks to answer the question of interest in a design that examines husbands and wives together, rather than independently. Accordingly, a structural equation modeling is used. This statistical technique controls any covariance that might occur between spouses as well as the ability to specify interesting cross-spouse effects in a single model.

Based on the literature, both self-enhancement and self-verification are hypothesized to have positive effects on individual affect and interpersonal relationships--measured by *individual self-esteem* and *trust in your spouse*. The conflict between an inclination for

increasingly positive information and one for accurate information suggests that significant results should be limited to one or the other. The current study will hopefully contribute to a better understanding of the relationship between these two self-motives and contribute to a broader understanding of why we gravitate toward given feedback patterns. Additionally, a clearer understanding of these processes will help resolve conflicting information couples receive, and finally answering the question, "What in the world does your spouse want to hear?"

Toward this end a deeper understanding of the literature related to self-enhancement and self-verification will be provided--describing not only basic theory but also how self-enhancement and self-verification relate to questions of affect and interpersonal relationships. Additionally, methodological points of operationalization and measurement will also be discussed relative to the diverse ways theses constructs have been treated in the literature. Finally, a review of the literature exploring how a motive to self-enhance relates to a motive to self-verify will conclude the following section.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Self-Motives

Whether driven by simple curiosity, feedback from others, or an attempt to respond to changes around them, people (for whatever reason) are prone to engage in a variety of self-evaluations when conducting their daily lives. These self-evaluative processes can lead to substantial benefit in an individual's ability to understand themselves, their relationships, and the social world around them. The inclination for this type of thought can be referred to as a *self-motive* and is based on a variety of factors. Sedikides and Strube (1997) draw four overarching themes from the substantial amount of work that has been done in this popular area of research. In addition enumerating many existing self-evaluative motives, they contend it is also important to know when they are activated, whether different motives prevail in different people, and how various self-motives can be integrated together.

A variety of self-motives have been proposed. Researchers have investigated motives for self-enhancement, self-verification, self-improvement, and self-assessment (Sedikides and Strube 1997). Most research has focused on exploring the effects of self-enhancement and self-verification, with significantly less attention paid to the others. While identification of self-motives is important, contradictions between established ones make understanding how they fit together important to explore. Accordingly, the current study will focus on those with the most fully developed areas of research: self-enhancement and self-verification. These two self-motives are especially interesting as they posit inclinations that are potentially contradictory, and until the contradictory inclinations are resolved it will be difficult to meaningfully process subsequent results.

Self- Enhancement

Self-enhancement theory emerged from various early personality theories such as those of Horney (1937) and Rodgers (1961). It suggests that individuals are motivated to seek information that enhances their perceptions of self-worth (Epstein 1973). Subsequently this has been interpreted as a desire to maintain or increase the positivity of one's self-concept. The term *self-enhancement* encompasses two related concepts that serve to accomplish this goal. Maximizing positive aspects of the self is referred to as *self-enhancement*, while decreasing negative aspects is identified as *self-protection*.

Theorists have expanded on self-enhancement in distinct ways. One approach is based on Allport's (1937) self-insight theory, proposing that self-enhancers perceive themselves more positively than others perceive them. In contrast, works based on Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory suggest that self-enhancers perceive themselves more positively than they perceive others. Each approach influences choices of operationalization. How self-enhancement influences other variables will be discussed later; the discussion that follows will focus on a broader spectrum of the topic.

Alicke and Sedikides (2009) suggest that self-enhancement processes can occur through both primary and secondary control, concepts proposed by Rothbaum, Weisz, and Snyder (1982) referring simply to taking effective instrumental action, or modifying psychological processes in such a way that the individual's perceptions of external events shift. Self-enhancement can be identified using primary control: individuals take action to promote their positive aspects and minimize their negative ones. Annoying examples of this can be observed on television during an election year. Hepper, Hart, Gregg, and Sedikides (2011) found that individuals tend to expect positive feedback from others, and increase the

expectation the more they desire feedback. It is reasonable that the motive for self-enhancement might play a role in influencing whom we choose to associates with, and that social relationships may be structured around our partner's willingness to provide enhancing feedback.

Alternatively, secondary control encompasses many of the psychological effects explored by investigators focusing on intrapersonal processes operating semi-independently from social interaction. Interesting effects have resulted from exploring the multiplicity of ways an individual can modify their perceptions to enhance their self-concept. A few of the more interesting ones are worth summarizing.

Wilson and Ross (2001) found that individuals have a tendency to believe they have improved relative to their past performance. They propose that the tendency to denigrate past performance is contingent on whether they believe the highlighted trait is fixed; if the trait were fixed, any focus on improvement would be balanced by an admission that their past performance was subpar.

Alicke and Govorum (2006) proposed a related idea: most of the time people tend to overestimate their abilities relative to others, termed the "better than average effect." They found that regardless of the comparison group, individuals tend to rate their position as average--even if the group is distinct from the general population. For example, students from a typical university tended to predict they would be at least a little better than average at more elite Ivy League schools. This perception tends to confirm individuals' tendency to compare themselves with others who are worse-off (Wood, Giordano-Beech, and Ducharme 1999), and happens most when experiencing failure and needing to reaffirm a positive self-concept. Fein and Spencer (1997) demonstrated that when individuals experience negative

feedback, a direct comparison doesn't necessarily need to take place, and that evaluating another person negatively can serve to bolster the individual's self-concept. This supports the common wisdom that mean-spirited people hurt others because they feel negatively about themselves.

The prediction of self-enhancement is important. The theory that those with low self-esteem are the most motivated to engage in self-enhancing behavior, and those with high self-esteem have little motivation to engage in such behavior (Jones 1973) is implicit in much of the work on self-enhancement; this prediction, however, has consistently failed to be empirically demonstrated(Brown 1986; J. D. Campbell 1986). Issues such as this have led others to propose theories of consistency or self-verification instead.

Self-Verification

In contrast to self-enhancement, theories of self-verification suggest that individuals are motivated to preserve their self-views. People strive to acquire information that confirms their individual self-concepts, mediated by a preference for stimuli that are familiar and reassuring. This verifying information is subsequently seen as more trustworthy and accurate.

Self-verification theory can be traced to work of Prescott Lecky (1945) who proposed that ongoing self-views give people a sense of coherence, and provides motivation to preserve them--an insight that can be seen in numerous self-consistency theories that subsequently emerged. Theories such as Aronson's (1968) and Festinger's (1957) work with cognitive dissonance focused on bringing self-view into congruence with an individual's behavior. In contrast, current self-verification theory returns the focus to Lecky's original formulation by refocusing on the theory that stable self-views inform an individual's effort to maintain self-consistency(Swann et al. 2011). This highlights an important behavioral point:

rather than allowing one's behavior to transform how the self is viewed, an individual works to make sure their behavior and experiences conform to that self-view. This in turn suggests a much greater predictability in one's behavior, not only for the individual, but also for their companions.

The notion of behavior predictability has been explored in other areas of research, most notably in the work of Erving Goffman (1959). The concept of mutual predictability is pivotal in the pursuit of joint goals and to the creation of a functional society. Swann (2011) proposes this might occur in several ways. First, individuals may, through the use of identity cues, create readily accessible identity displays for cohorts (Pratt and Rafaeli 1997). Secondly, through behaviors, individuals might attempt to communicate they would like feedback that matches their self-views (Swann and Hill 1982). Finally, people can construct what McCall and Simmons (1966) refer to as *opportunity structures*--social environments that satisfy their needs. This represents one of the most interesting effects of the motive to self-verify from a sociological perspective; it posits a direct link between cognitive self-views and the types of social relationships people try to enter and the environments they attempt to construct. Swann, De la Ronda, and Hixon (1994) demonstrated that individuals are quick to leave relationships that fail to provide consistent and accurate feedback about their self-views. This is important since self-verification predicts that those with positive self-views will work to maintain them, but in contrast to self enhancement theory, self-verification predicts that those with negative self-views will also seek feedback consistent with their negative self-concept (Swann 1983). The theory of self-verification suggests that uncertainty reduction and predictability are more important to an individual than positive

evaluations generated through self-enhancement. The rationale is based in the complex relationship that both can have with closely related affective constructs.

Self-Motives andAffect.

Self-Enhancement

Interpreting research that explores the relationship between self-enhancement and affect is difficult. By definition, *self-enhancement* is the drive to maximize the positivity of one's self-worth, which is closely related to self-esteem. Research focusing on self-enhancement has tended to examine this relationship by treating affect as a trait. Most researchers study how concepts such as self-esteem motivate individuals to engage in self-enhancement. Accordingly, the current study will first review examples of this type before addressing literature that offers a better understanding of affect as an outcome.

As mentioned previously, conventional wisdom suggests that those with low self-esteem should engage in self-enhancement to regain a positive self-concept (Jones 1973). Brown, Collins and Schmidt (1988) suggest the relationship is more complex. They found that while those with high self-esteem tended to directly engage in self-enhancement, individuals with low self-esteem did so in a much more indirect manner. Phrased differently, those with high self-esteem take direct credit for positive accomplishments and positively increase their feeling of self-worth. In contrast, those with low self-esteem tend to highlight their association with positive groups or individuals who have had successes, thereby more indirectly taking credit for accomplishments but still increasing their feeling of self-worth. The direction taken in this type of inquiry, to understand the relationship between self-enhancement and self-esteem, makes it difficult to disentangle given the conflation between

the two. In contrast, work examining self-enhancement and depression is much clearer in delineating the relationship between the two concepts.

The tendency for depressed individuals to self-enhance has been more clearly demonstrated. Alloy and Ahrens (1987) found that while a non-depressed control sample exhibited a self-enhancement bias and overestimated abilities, those suffering from depression neither over nor underestimated their abilities. Alloy and Ahrens offered a possible explanation for the difference: the type of information attended to by the individual may differ depending on whether or not an individual is depressed. Those in the non-depressed sample may have attended more to positive information when making their judgments, in contrast to those in the depressed group who attended more to negative information. Hymes and Akiyama (1991) found wider support for a negative relationship between self-enhancement and depression in a comparison of American and Japanese students. They found that in both samples those who were depressed tended to engage in less self-enhancing behaviors, and this may have partially accounted for the low incidence of self-enhancing behaviors seen in the Japanese sample.

These findings lend support to the proposal by Peterson and Seligman (1984) that those suffering from depression tend to make external causal attribution for success and internal causal attributions for failure. This tendency suggests that self-enhancement is inherently contradictory to the behavior most typically demonstrated by those who are depressed; positive self-feedback is attributed instead to external situational factors. It is possible that depression might serve as a potential moderator of the effects of self-enhancement on individual self-esteem by affecting the tendency of the individual to attribute positive feedback to the self. These findings are interesting in light of the work done by

Joiner, Metalsky, Katz, and Beach (1999) who found those who are depressed will attempt to seek excessive reassurance, which intuitively should serve to reaffirm a positive self-concept. Instead, they found that this information is attributed to pity on the part of the others, and serves instead to increase their depression. Combined research findings suggest that even with the strong tendency of individuals to want self-enhancement, positive evaluations are not necessarily an effective response to ameliorate symptoms of depression. Additionally, excessive reassurance seeking has potential effects on interpersonal relationships and will be discussed in a later section.

The literature clearly demonstrates that the motive for self-enhancement is closely tied to affective concepts, which serve to influence both how and how much an individual will engage in self-enhancing behavior. The tendency to examine how affect as a trait influences decisions to self-enhance, rather than investigate the role self-enhancement plays in influencing emotional states, has limited conclusive findings. An interesting investigation would be to examine this bi-directionality to determine whether positive self-feedback might influence affective concepts. Work by Leary and Baumeister (2000) approaches self-esteem from an interpersonal perspective, examining it as a state rather than a trait, and also highlighting how this can feed back into trait self-esteem since people with chronic low self-esteem have a history of not "belonging."

Leary and Baumeister (2000) developed what they term *sociometer theory* as a way to understand the importance of self-esteem. Sociometer theory begins (as many behavioral theories do) with the foundation that individuals possess a self-esteem motive; individuals are motivated to maintain a certain level of positive feelings about themselves. Leary and Baumeister questioned why people do this, since most studies that look for the direct benefits

of high self-esteem tend to find mixed or insignificant results (Mecca, Smelser, and Vasconcellos 1989; R. F Baumeister et al. 2003).Hence, sociometer theory proposes that self-esteem is important to individuals, not in and of itself, but instead serves the purpose of gauging something much more important.

Leary and Baumeister (2000) propose that self-esteem serves to indicate the quality of an individual's personal relationships, and serves as a motivation to engage in behaviors that result in acceptance by others. Subsequently, high self-esteem subjectively informs individuals whether they are acceptable to others in groups and close relationships. Leary and Baumeister note that the concept is not original with them and is a restatement of reflected appraisal appearing throughout much of the literature on "the self." What is unique about their work is they extended this idea to self-esteem; rather than being a reflection of other people's feedback, self-esteem performs the function of monitoring the quality of interpersonal relationships. They base this assertion on an evolutionary argument for a basic human need to belong (Leary et al. 1995), suggesting that interpersonal relationships are adaptive for success in a variety of evolutionary endeavors, and as an important component of human survival, must have an internal monitor.

Self-esteem is heavily contingent on feedback from others; an individual needs to know whether they are a worthwhile relationship partner. Those who fail to match the attributes that are valued in a given society, such as intelligence or physical attractiveness, tend to be excluded from groups and not chosen as relationship partners. How others rate an individual on these attributes directly influences one's self-esteem, which exists to monitor the current state of relationships. The relationship between interpersonal feedback and self-

esteem has been found to be positive where positive appraisal from others is evaluated as acceptance and is associated with increases in individual self-esteem(Leary et al. 1998).

The question becomes this: Is positive feedback from others a clear enough source of self-enhancement to make use of sociometer theory and generate a testable hypotheses regarding self-esteem? Returning to the concept of primary control methods of self-enhancement by Rothbaum et al. (1982), it is reasonable to assume that instrumental action taken by an individual to maximize positive self-feedback could occur through a decision to interact with those who supply said feedback. Related research exploring self-affirmation suggests that a partner's judgments can be a significant resource in reducing distress and increasing positive self-views (Murray, Holmes, and Griffin 1996). The use of sociometer theory enables the current study to predict changes in trait self-esteem, rather than only making self-esteem a moderator of self-enhancement. Specifying the relationship between self-enhancement and self-esteem permits the current study to use self-esteem as a point of comparison between these two self-motives.

Self-Verification

In contrast to self-enhancement, the relationship between self-verification and affect has been studied more explicitly. The ability to verify one's self-view theoretically leads to positive affect. In situations where an individual is unable to verify the self-view, individuals feel distress, and this serves to motivate the person to modify the situation until a match is obtained (Burke and Stets 2009). *Affect* is generally understood to be either a positive or negative impression of an event or behavior, and research examining self-verification has conceptualized affect in this manner. Affect has been used broadly and with some uncertainty in primarily cognitive or structural theories utilized in self-verification research. Attempts

have been made to incorporate affective concepts into models of self-verification processes with varying levels of success. The potential for intersection between self-verification and affective processes is great, but a few areas relevant to the current discussion stand out.

Self-esteem is usually understood as a general positive evaluation of the self (Rosenberg,1965),explaining why it is so closely connected to the prediction of positive affect during self-verification. Cast and Burke (2002) theorize that self-esteem may be understood as outcome, buffer, and motive. Put simply, increases in self-esteem may result from verification, serve to buffer negative outcomes from failing to verify, and serve as a goal a person would want to maximize. The current study is interested in this first articulation of self-esteem as an outcome, and this is how Rosenberg--both alone (Rosenberg 1990) and in collaboration with others (Rosenberg et al. 1995)--typically examined it. More importantly, self-verification theory conceptualizes self-esteem as an outcome, and suggests that the positive affect arising from successful verification can be observed as an increase in self-esteem. Self-verification suggests that feelings of competence and worth are generated when an individual verifies the self, resulting in a measureable increase in self-esteem. It is theorized that this occurs through feelings of efficacious action generated by the person during verification. In addition, verification communicates to the individual that he or she is accepted and valued by the partner, which also serves to increase self-esteem. In contrast, an inability to verify leaves the individual feeling inefficacious and unaccepted by the group (Cast and Burke 2002). These two effects relate to separate dimensions of self-esteem. The former influences perceptions of self-efficacy, while the latter is related to perceptions of self-worth. Regardless of the specific dimension, these increases in self-esteem can then serve to buffer against negative affective processes such as depression and anxiety, in the

same way that money made while employed can provide support during a period of unemployment. Baumeister (1998) suggests this occurs by allowing individuals to process feedback in a self-serving way. Alternatively, some suggest those with high self-esteem possess greater cognitive resources, allowing them to more easily handle negative events (Baumgardner, Kaufman, and Levy 1989). Regardless, the pursuit of high self-esteem is thought to influence many of the cognitive-affective connections seen in self-verification.

Further research on the relationship between verification, positive affect, and self-esteem, originates with Burke (1991), who found that disruptions in these processes have implication not only for negative affect, but also for broader feelings of depression and anxiety. By adapting the stress process model by Pearlin et al. (1981), Burke's research suggests that not only does stress from disruptions in life events such as job loss, have a direct effect on anxiety and depression, but stress from disruption in the ability to verify one's identity has direct effects as well. Furthermore, Burke (1991) theorizes these identity disruptions also exert an indirect effect through a reduction in self-esteem. Related research has also found support for a relationship between verification and anxiety (Swann, Chang-Schneider, and Angulo 2008). Wood et al. (2005) found those with positive self-views respond favorably to success, but those with negative self-views became anxious because success does not match how they view themselves. Similarly, Ralph and Mineka (1998) found that students with negative self-views increased feelings of anxiety and depression when receiving good grades, while failing grades resulted in little response. Hence the relationship between verification and affective outcome is complex, and there is some indication it depends on situational factors (Hixon and Swann 1993).

The tendency of those with negative self-views to seek negative feedback is especially problematic when applied to depression. A link has been found between motivation to seek this type of negative feedback and depressive symptoms (Joiner 1995; Joiner and Metalsky 1995). This is especially troubling in long-term romantic relationships. In married couples, Katz and Beach (1997) found self-verification led to decreased depression for those who had high self-esteem, but led to increased depression for those who had low self-esteem. They propose that verification of self for those with low self-esteem serves to reinforce negative self-evaluations. Similarly,Weinstock and Whisman (2004) suggest the initial drop in self-esteem associated with depressed individuals serves to reinforce the motivation to seek out negative feedback. The relationship between this initial drop in self-esteem and an increased desire to verify negative self-evaluations, results in reaffirmation and makes the person more depressed. There is evidence supporting the notion that this relationship is especially problematic for married couples, as the enduring nature of marital bonds makes it unlikely they will find other partners to positively evaluate them(Schafer, Wickrama, and Keith 1996). This suggests that when the spouse is depressed, verification is likely to make them more depressed, and positive evaluations will fail to verify their self-views, resulting in even more distress. Both situations have implications for marital discord, underscoring the complex psychological processes underlying interpersonal relationships.

Swann et al. (1987) argues for what he terms *crossfire* between the cognitive and affective levels of the self. Individuals with negative self-views are motivated by psychological coherence offered by verifying negative feedback, even though this generates negative affect in the short-term. He proposes that the desire for comfort and coherence is so

strong that it overwhelms the desire for self-enhancing feedback, causing individuals to surround themselves with people who view them negatively (North and Swann 2009).

Self-Motives and Interpersonal Relationships

Self-Enhancement

The effect of self-enhancement on interpersonal relationships is mixed. The question of interest would be: is the drive to maximize positive self-relevant information beneficial to social relationships, or does it instead complicate the ability to effectively interact with others? Paulhus (1998) found it does both. In a longitudinal study working with discussion groups he found that self-enhancers make good first impressions. These individuals were seen as agreeable, well adjusted, and competent by other members of the groups. In contrast, after seven weeks the judgments of the other group members changed dramatically, and they began to evaluate these individuals much more negatively and discrepantly from the individuals' own self-evaluations. Interestingly, even with this pattern of deteriorating interpersonal perceptions, the relationship between self-enhancement and self-esteem remained positive. These findings support the common wisdom that extreme self-enhancement may become pathological and develop into narcissism, which others often respond to negatively. Other investigators have come to a different conclusion.

Research done by Taylor, Lerner, Sherman, Sage, and McDowell (2003) sought to test the aforementioned conclusion and found conflicting results. In addition to demonstrating a clear relationship between self-enhanced and positive psychological indicators, they found friendships of the high self-enhancers were just as long and positively regarded as those of the low self-enhancers. Overall, they found self-enhancers did not experience any social cost. Their interpretation of this effect suggests, first, people tend to

like others with good mental health, and self-enhancement is closely linked to positive mental health. Secondly, the tendency to self-enhance may be directly related to the types of relationships they develop—a finding of particular interest in the present study. It is reasonable to theorize that individuals who highly engage in this behavior may, over the long-term, retain friends that support it and lose friends who do not. This highlights a clear difference between the current study and the one performed by Paulhus (1998) who used a group of individuals meeting for the first time versus those who had remained friends over the long-term.

While interesting, these studies do not fully explore the linkage between self-enhancement and trust, instead focusing on the interpersonal success of individuals engaged in self-enhancement. Alternatively, Montoya and Inkso (2008) found that expressed attraction from others is interpreted as benevolence and indicates they are trustworthy. Similarly, others have demonstrated that positive, rather than negative, descriptors from others are associated with higher ratings of trust(Singh et al. 2009), suggesting that self-enhancement from others may result in the individual trusting that person more--what self-enhancement means in the long-term for the individual's relationships is unclear. Individuals trust those who reassure them of their positive self-perceptions, but the act of excessively seeking reassurance may be aversive behavior to others, creating a tension. In other words, engaging in reassurance seeking behavior may increase the individual's perceptions of trust in their partner, but making it more likely that the partner will not be a trustworthy source of positive feedback in the future.

Self-Verification

Research also suggests that identity verification has both direct and indirect influences on individual relationships. Previous research focused on the effects of self-verification for perceptions of trust and commitment in interpersonal relationships. Burke and Stets (1999) found direct effects between self-verification and self-reported trust professed by individuals for their spouse. They propose that repeated successful identity verifications with a partner allows an individual to gain knowledge of the partner's potential responses, and this then translates into greater trust. This mirrors assertions from Rempel et al. (1985) that predictability is one of the three primary dimensions of trust, along with dependability and faith. This emphasis on predictability illustrates self-verification, even in cases of negative self-concepts, is positively related to trust. Research has shown that individuals with negative self-concepts tend to rate negative feedback as accurate even if they find it unpleasant (Swann et al. 1987). In such cases a distinction must be made between trusting someone because they are nice to you, and trusting someone because you can depend on them to be predicable. Most of us are familiar with people who are nice to us but aren't very trustworthy, and those who we can depend on to be consistent but don't say very favorable things about us.

In addition to these direct effects, indirect effects through positive and negative self-feelings have also been observed. People tend to trust others when all else is equal (Sears 1983). Verification leads to positive self-feelings, which subsequently leads an individual to be more trusting of the person with whom they are interacting. Burke and Stets (1999) suggest that a dual cognitive and affective model operates, much like that previously proposed by Swann (1987).

Burke and Stets (1999) also found indirect effects for identity verification relative to an individuals' subjective commitment to a relationship. These findings help clarify the connection between verification and commitment shown in other studies. For example, Swann and Pelham (2002) found that college students sought new places to live when they had negative self-views and their roommates evaluated them positively. Similarly, Riley and Burke (1995) found that the inability to verify identities can lead to individuals becoming disgruntled and abandoning their current social positions. The argument can be made that trust serves a meditational function in these situations. Kollock (1994) proposed that uncertainty effects trust, which subsequently effects commitment during exchanges. Burke and Stets (1999) suggest that a failure to predictably verify one's identity is a type of uncertainty, which leads to an inability to generate trust in a partner and eventual lack of commitment to a relationship.

Similarly, North and Swann (2009) suggest that identity verification has significant implications for society and social harmony through verification's effects on trust and commitment. They cite the work of Buss (2003) who argues that unpredictable behavior undermines the ability of society to function and impedes survival. Overall, an argument can be made that the self-motive for coherence and predictability, proposed by the work on self-verification, underlies much of the stability of social relationships and society. It is not difficult to assume that this would be especially important in marital relationships, and that verification would have significant implications for their overall stability.

Measuring Self-motives

Self-Enhancement

Attributable to the broad nature of the self-enhancement effect, the effect has been operationalized and measured in a diverse number of ways. As can be inferred by the discussion of the diverse literature on self-enhancement effects, operationalization is often contingent on the specific means by which the individual is enhancing, rather than on a unifying operationalization of self-enhancement as a construct. What follows is a discussion of the more popular approaches, and concludes with a potential alternative that avoids some of the shortcomings characteristic of more popular approaches.

Researchers, basing their research on the literature of Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory, tend to focus on how individuals rate themself versus others. This can be seen in the replicated research discussed earlier demonstrating the better than average effect. This type of operationalization is called *social comparison*. Researchers using this method typically index a wide variety of evaluative traits and ask individuals to rate both themselves and others. Alternatively, a variation of this method might ask someone to directly compare themselves to their perception of an average member of the population or a specific group (Chambers and Windschitl 2004). Kurt and Paulhus (2008) note that this approach makes it difficult to separate self-enhancement from demonstrable differences in positive traits; objectively accurate differences, especially in skill-based areas of comparison, appear to be self-enhancement effects. Attempts to resolve this conflation have led others to utilize alternative approaches.

One of the alternative approaches solves this problem by characterizing self-enhancement as a criterion discrepancy. Rather than evaluating the difference between

perception-of-self and perception-of-another, researchers examine the discrepancy between self-perceptions and outside criterion(John and Robins 1994). This operationalization is an interesting point of overlap with measures of self-verification (discussed in the next section). In instances when external criterion is another's judgment, measures of self-enhancement using a criterion discrepancy are similar to measures of self-verification. The point of distinction is that they are interpreted only to the extent that individual judgments exceed the criterion score, ignoring underestimation. Additionally, when typically used, these types of measures result in a negative association with mental health outcomes(Colvin, Block, and Funder 1995)similar to those found with self-verification.

Some research takes a more direct approach. As mentioned earlier, Hepper et al. (2011) proposed that some individuals might self-enhance by expecting those around them to provide positive feedback. They operationalized self-enhancement by asking individuals whether they expected to receive positive feedback from associates. They found that individuals typically expect positive feedback from those around them, and this expectation is positively correlated with their desire for positive feedback. Taking this a step further, an interesting question would be whether a person actively selects companions that give positive feedback as a form of self-enhancement. Phrased differently, does choosing to enter into a relationship (for example, romantic) with an individual who evaluates positively constitute a form of self-enhancement? An earlier discussion addressing the relationship between interpersonal feedback and self-esteem suggests this might be the case. Thomaes et al. (2010) demonstrated that adolescent self-esteem is influenced by peer feedback, and that children with low self-esteem choose to spend more time viewing positive feedback. Similarly, Srivastava and Beer (2005) found that the inability to effectively form relationships because

of anxiety related to negative attachment styles, led to significantly lower self-evaluative ratings. These studies taken together lend support to the contention that individual relationships are an important means of maintaining positive views of the self, and that people will choose to interact with those who give positive feedback. Additionally, when relationship building is complicated by attachment anxiety, individuals' self-esteem tends to be lower than those who manage it successfully.

Related research by Kavanagh, Robins, and Ellis (2010) examining a mate selection variant of sociometer theory provides further support for interpersonal feedback as a source of self-enhancement. They demonstrated that experiencing either social acceptance or rejection results in not only the previously theorized changes in self-esteem, but can also influence how the individual views the overall value of the self. They found that those who experienced rejection or negative feedback tend to negatively evaluate their personal worthiness as a potential mate. Alternatively, acceptance or positive feedback enhances their perceptions of self-worth and elevates their aspirations for future encounters. Presuming a motive to self-enhance, this finding suggests that individuals would be inclined to gravitate toward those who respond positively to them; it is another way to enhance the positivity of self-views.

The use of positivity of interpersonal feedback to measure self-enhancement is supported by: 1) the theoretical prediction that those with low self-esteem will seek positive feedback to increase it, and 2) research that suggests positive feedback has a relationship with both self-esteem and self-views. Furthermore, this type of measure eliminates many of the problems seen with social comparison, and criterion discrepancy methods of measurement--avoiding the bias generated by true differences in traits. Similarly, utilizing

the positivity of interpersonal feedback, rather than the discrepancy between this criterion and the individual's self-ratings, allows for greater delineation between self-enhancement and self-verification.

Self-Verification

In contrast to self-enhancement, much of the confusion associated with measuring the effects of self-verification occurs through inconsistent operationalization of the self-concept, rather than related expressions of the concept. The measures used in the literature frequently vary between cognitive and affective, and global and specific concepts of the self.

The cognitive versus affective distinction highlights the difference between someone describing an individual the same way the individual would describe himself or herself, versus someone affectively evaluating the individual the same way the person would evaluate himself or herself. For example, Katz and Beach (1996) used a self-esteem subscale of a measure of social support indicating that their partner found them to be worthwhile, while Schafer et al. (1996) used a series of self-descriptive traits. For Katz and Beach (1996), individuals were verified through their partner seeing them as a good person if they saw themselves as a good person. In contrast, the participants in the study by Schafer et al. (1996) were verified by agreement about specific descriptive traits such as intelligence and friendliness. Reconciling the results of these studies is difficult due to the obvious interactions present between the cognitive and affective systems when processing self-verification. Other researchers have made use of existing constructs like the big five personality traits, due to the big five's previously tested relationship with interpersonal behavior and affect (Letzring and Noftle 2010).

In addition to the cognitive/affective question, the measurement required for verification of overall self-concept, versus verification of its individual parts is problematic. For instance, Katz and Beach (1996) looked primarily at verifying partner support, but they also included a second measure termed *global self-verification*. When they examined the relationship between the two measures they found a significant modest correlation, but inconsistent effects in the model. Neff and Karney (2005) looked at global versus specific evaluations in newlywed couples, and found that while spouses tended to enhance their partners on the global level, the strongest marriages were grounded in specific, accurate information. These findings again speak to the close relationship between self-motives, and their sensitivity about issues related to conceptualization and measurement. Overall, a measure of descriptive traits reduces conflation between cognitive self-views and self-esteem, while also strongly relating to the desire for accurate information. This type of measure has been used extensively in the literature—by collecting husband's views of their wives and calculating the absolute value of the discrepancy between the husband's views and the wife's view of herself (Burke and Stets 1999; Swann, Hixon, and De La Ronde 1992; Swann, De La Ronde, and Hixon 1994). Taking the absolute value of the scores focuses only on the failure to verify, and more completely distinguishes such a measure from one measuring self-enhancement. Ideally, the wife's perception of her husband's view of her would be the most appropriate and useful information, but the husband's view of the wife has been found to serve as a reasonable proxy. Overall, this type of measure would appear to have the best chance at distinguishing verification as an independent construct from both self-esteem and self-enhancement.

Verification vs. Enhancement

In the rare instance of both self-motives being investigated together, the research is split on whether self-enhancement or self-verification is the master motive (Kwang and Swann 2010; Sedikides and Gregg 2008).Not surprisingly, the answer seems to depend on the situation. There is evidence that individuals demonstrate enhancement for affective responses and verification for cognitive responses (Swann et al. 1987). In Swann et al.'s research, affective responses were operationalized according to how a subject felt about the feedback, while cognitive responses were indicative of how self-descriptive the subject felt it was. Framed another way, for example, individuals' with negative self-concepts considered negative feedback more accurate, but were not happy about it. Swann (1990) also suggests that enhancement, which is the less cognitively taxing of the two processes, is used when the individual possesses fewer cognitive resources. When individuals were given less time to reflect on choosing an interaction partner, they were more likely to choose the one who had evaluated them more favorably (Swann, Hixon, and De La Ronde 1992).

In light of this and other issues, some researchers have started to make distinctions between types of social relationships to clarify inconsistencies. Kwang and Swann (2010) found in situations where the risk of rejection is high, people are driven toward self-enhancing feedback. In contrast, in relationships where rejection risk is low, such as long-term spousal relationships, self-verification is preferred. Some research has demonstrated that too much enhancement may lead to the termination of a relationship(Burke and Harrod 2005). Furthermore, some have suggested the length of a relationship affects the desire for verifying versus enhancing feedback (Campbell, Lackenbauer, and Muise 2006). As the length of couples' relationships increased, verifying feedback became preferred over

enhancing feedback. Burke and Harrod (2005) suggest it is not the length, but the strength of the relationship that matters, which more closely echoes Swann's emphasis on the risk of rejection.

An important point to note from much of this research is that it is predicated on the assumption that only one self-motive, either self-enhancement or self-verification, is present. In other words, finding evidence for one precludes the possibility that the other is exerting an effect. In the study by Swann et al. (1992), choosing to receive feedback from the individual that had evaluated them favorably provides support for a motive to self-enhance, but importantly does not necessarily undermine the existence of a motive to self-verify. Little work has examined the possibility that both motives could exert an effect on psychological process. The possibility exists that even in those cases where the participant chose the person whose feedback enhanced their self-concept, the affective consequences of this decision went unrecorded if they occurred beyond the relatively short timeframe of most experimental research.

Some research has provided support for the idea that both enhancement and verification have unique, positive effects on feelings about relationships (Lackenbauer et al. 2010). Individuals who were most positive about their relationship had partners who saw them for who they were, but through “rose tinged glasses.” There is evidence that the relationship between these self-motives is fluid. Letzring and Noftle (2010) demonstrated that while enhancing views are important for a dating couple at the beginning of their relationship, enhancement becomes less important over time. They found that the relationship between verification and marital quality is stronger for married couples than it is for dating or cohabitating couples. These findings demonstrate the importance of both self-

motives for relationships, but the nature of the relationships appears to influence the level of importance for both self-enhancement and self-esteem.

The Plan of the Present Study

The primary goal of the current study is to compare the effects of self-verification versus self-enhancement in marriage, and determine the relationships between these two self-motives for self-esteem and trust. In addition, ancillary relationships between indicators and variables will also be specified where appropriate based upon related literature. A brief discussion of these relationships will be presented below, followed by a formal presentation of hypotheses.

The overall impression one receives in reviewing the literature is that the effect self-enhancement has on self-esteem is a positive one; seeking positive information about the self tends to buoy positive evaluations of the self and heightens self-esteem. Additionally, a primary prediction of self-enhancement theory is that individuals suffering from low self-esteem become motivated to engage in enhancing behaviors to increase their self-esteem. Direct tests of self-esteem as an outcome of self-enhancement are rare, if not entirely non-existent, due to the tendency to treat self-esteem as a moderator. Nevertheless, positive appraisals and self-esteem have a positive relationship with one another. Hence, the current study uses both existing self-enhancement theory and related work presented in sociometer theory (Leary and Baumeister 2000) as a guide to predict higher levels of self-enhancement to be associated with higher ratings of self-esteem.

The relationship between self-enhancement and trust is more explicit if mixed. The contradicting predictions made by Paulhus (1998) and Taylor et al. (2003) about the effects of self-enhancement on interpersonal trust make it difficult to specify a clear hypothesis. The

distinction between samples noted in the results discussion suggests the effects of self-enhancement are contingent on the type of relationship--with longer, more enduring relationships demonstrating more positive effects. As described below, the current study uses a sample comprised of newly married couples, making them more closely related to the sample used by Taylor et al. (2003).The study predicts that higher ratings of self-enhancement will be associated with higher ratings of trust in the spouse.

Hypotheses about Self-Enhancement Effects

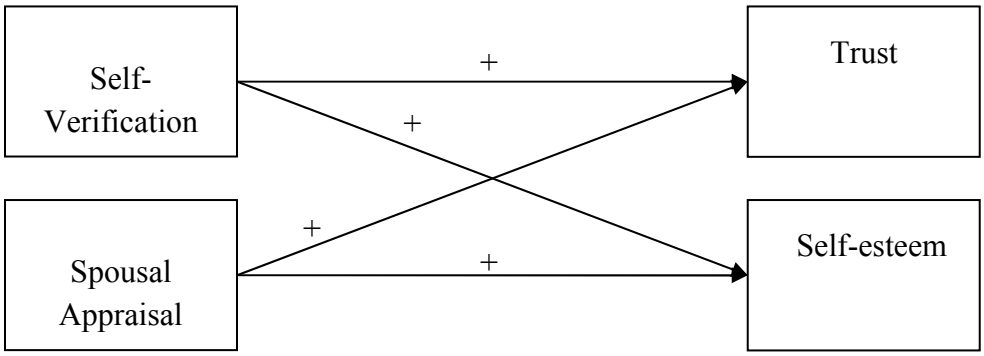
- Higher spouse appraisal will be associated with higher self-esteem, for both husbands and wives.
- Higher spouse appraisal will be associated with greater trust in a partner, for both husbands and wives.

Lack of self-verification is typically characterized in the literature as having a negative relationship with both self-esteem and trust(Burke and Stets 1999; Burke and Stets 2009).Therefore, the current study predicts that the more discrepant spouse appraisals are from self-ratings, which indicates a greater distance from self-verification, the lower the individual's level of self-esteem. Similarly, the more discrepant spouse appraisals are from self-ratings, the lower the individual's trust in their spouse.

Hypotheses about Self-Verification Effects

- Higher self-verification will be associated with higher self-esteem, for both husbands and wives.
- Higher self-verification will be associated with greater trust in a partner, for both husbands and wives.

Figure 1: Theoretical model



While the relationship between depression and self-esteem is not the primary concern of the current study, the close relationship depression has with both self-esteem and the self-motive variables necessitates controlling for its effects. Much of the research examining self-enhancement and depression focuses on the impact of depression, on how and when individuals engage in self-enhancement(Alloy and Ahrens 1987; Hymes and Akiyama 1991). Subsequently, there is some support for the contention that depression influences the ability of the individual to make positive self-attributions (Peterson and Seligman 1984) and might potentially make them unable to reap the benefits of self-enhancement. The current study will attempt to account for this possibility by testing the moderating effects of depression.

Hypothesis about the moderating effects of depression

- Depression will moderate the effects of spouse appraisal on self-esteem and trust in a partner, for both husbands and wives: Spouse appraisal will be positively associated with self-esteem and trust for less depressed participants, but not associated or negatively associated with self-esteem and trust for more depressed participants.

Chapter 3. Methodology

Sample

The data were drawn from a longitudinal study of newly married couples collected by the center for the study of marital roles at Washington State University. The participants were drawn from marriage registration records between 1991 and 1992 in Washington State couples had only recently married, most only a few months previous to the first interview. A majority of participants reported they had been seriously involved with each other for two years or less, approximately a third reported having been seriously involved for one year or less prior to their marriage. Inclusion criteria in the study specified that this was the participants' first marriage and that the couple currently had no children living in the home. Out of 574 couples who met the criteria, 338 agreed to participate, 52 withdrew, and 286 completed all data collection for the first year(Tallman, Burke, and Gecas 1998). At the time of collection, couples did not differ from other newly married couples across the United States on demographic variables such as age and educational attainment. Data were collected each year over the course of three years. After the first year, attrition in the sample equaled fifteen percent with an additional four percent the next year. These numbers do not include the 29 couples who divorced or separated; they no longer fit the sampling frame specified by the researchers. Finally, the couples lost to attrition were younger, possessed less education, and occupied a lower socio-economic status (Tallman et al. 1998). Due to this attrition, the current study only makes use of the first wave of data. This limits some of the potential questions, but increases the robustness of the tests of the primary hypotheses.

Analytic Strategy

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a statistical technique that utilizes a confirmatory approach to hypothesis-testing (Byrne 2001). This type of analysis typically represents causal relationships among multiple variables (Bentler 1988). While conventional statistical techniques deal with cases, SEM emphasizes covariance structures. The goal of SEM is to minimize the covariance differences between the sample covariance matrix and the one predicted by the model to obtain a model which most closely reproduces a population covariance matrix (Bollen 1989).

SEM is composed of three underlying components: path analysis, latent variable measurement models, and estimation procedures for combining the above two (Bollen 1989). Path analysis consists of a path diagram, equations relating correlations/covariances to the variables, and the decomposition of effects (Bollen 1989; Wright 1960). Path analysis not only describes the association between variables but also allows for specification of the causal direction between variables. These causal linkages can include both exogenous variables and endogenous variables(Byrne 2001).

Latent variable measurement models, or confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as it is sometimes known, allows a researcher to test a latent construct by using previous knowledge of the underlying latent variable structure (Byrne 2001). The researcher is able to specify relationships between observed variables and underlying structures, and subsequently test the structure statistically. Whereas path analysis utilizes only observed variables, CFA utilizes both observed variables and their representative latent constructs.

The current study makes use of the path analysis component of this procedure only. Given the relative lack of research in this area, a decision was made to simplify the analysis

as much as possible while maintaining the complexity necessary to test the relationships of interest. Thus, summative indexes are used in place of latent variables. A discussion of the internal consistency of these indexes follows in the discussion of measures.

Measures

Question sets were culled from the available data best representing the concepts of interest to test the specified hypotheses. An overview of these questions and the relevant transformations are described below. A complete listing of the individual questions and their scales can be found in Appendix A.

Self-Motives

The self-motive variable of interest in the current analysis was derived from questions about five traits generally found in the construction of an individual's self-concept. It is important to note that this represents only a partial picture of the individual's self-concept, and is based around interaction with a single individual albeit a very important one. Participants were asked to rate both themselves and their spouse on intelligence, attractiveness, likeability, friendliness, and being an understanding person--using a scale ranging from zero to one hundred. For instance, a score of zero on intelligence would indicate virtually no intelligence, while one hundred would suggest a genius. Examination of descriptive statistics suggests that overall, both participants rates themselves and their spouses relatively high on each of the five traits. Scores ranged, on average, between around 70 and 80 for both husbands and wives.

Self-enhancement

The spouse’s rating of his or her partner was used as an indicator of self-enhancement. Table 3 shows means and standard deviations for a wife’s rating of her

husband (WrH) and a husband's rating of his wife (HrW). As the table shows, ratings of their spouse on average tended to be 78 to 86. In addition, wives tended to rate their husbands slightly higher on intelligence, likeability, and being an understanding person than their husbands rated them, while husbands rated their wives slightly higher on physical appearance and friendliness. Husbands were found to have a mean value of 413.12 on the index of the spouse ratings (HrW). This scale was found to have an acceptable Cronbach's alpha reliability of .716. Similarly, wives responses were represented by a mean value of 415.57 on the index of spouse ratings (WrH). This scale was also found to have an acceptable reliability of 771.

As discussed previously, ratings of an individual by the spouse can be used as an indicator of self-enhancement. Hence, (HrW) serves as a reasonable measure of a wife's self-enhancement, while (WrH) serves as a measure of a husband's self-enhancement. Both of these variables serve as a social acceptance indicator of an individual by the spouse, as indicated by evaluations on various personal traits. As discussed previously the current study argues that an individual's choice to associate with someone who views him or her positively is an avenue through which the individual can enhance their self.

Self-Verification

Self-verification was measured by subtracting the absolute value of the difference between a participant's self rating and the spouse's rating of that person. Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations of husband's ratings of self (HrH) and wife's ratings of self (WrW). As the table shows, ratings of themselves on average tended to be somewhat lower, ranging between 70 and 81. In addition, wives rated themselves slightly higher on friendliness and being an understanding person than husbands rated themselves, while

husbands rated themselves slightly higher on intelligence, physical appearance and likeability. Husbands were found to have a mean value of 382.81 on the self-ratings (HrH) index. This scale was found to have an acceptable Cronbach's alpha reliability of .742. Similarly, wives had a mean value of 383.13 on the self-ratings (WrW) index. This scale was also found to have an acceptable reliability of 776.

The absolute value of the difference between the person's judgments of himself or herself and the spouse's judgment of the individual were then determined for each trait. The values were summed together creating a composite score of the discrepancies between how the participant and how the spouse viewed that individual. Previous research has used this measurement approach, has shown that a measure combining all of these traits is the most effective (Burke and Harrod 2005). Finally, these scores were subtracted from a value of one to generate a measure of self-verification. This may not be a perfect measure since self-verification theory typically specifies a process based on an individual's perception of how another person sees them, rather than how the other person actually sees them--but this may serves as a reasonable proxy without access to that information. This variable will be referenced using the notation (1- |HrH-WrH|) to refer to the husband's self-verification and (1-|WrW-HrW|) to refer to the wife's self-verification. These variables may be interpreted with negative numbers representing low self-verification, and self-verification increasing as the value comes closer to one.

Examination of self-verification indicates that on average verification ranged between -10 to -15 points, with about a thirteen percent discrepancy between the husbands' self-ratings and their wives' ratings of them. Husbands appear to be the most verified on intelligence, while they are least verified on physical attractiveness. In contrast, verification

for the wife ranges from -10 to -17 points with a similar average discrepancy of thirteen percent. Wives are most verified on intelligence, while they are least verified on physical attractiveness. The average verification of the overall index for men is -63; for women the average discrepancy is -64.

Depression

Depression was measured using twelve items from the depression subscale of the SCL-90 (Derogatis 1977): a relatively brief self-report psychometric test designed to evaluate a broad range of symptoms associated with psychopathology. Participants were asked to indicate how often over the last week they had various symptoms. Examples of these symptoms include feeling lonely, feeling sad, and sleeping restlessly. Participants could indicate they had not experienced a given symptom that week, up to having experienced it all seven days of the current week. Responses to the questions were summed and an index was created with higher numbers indicating greater degrees of depression.

The descriptive statistics shown in table 6 for both husbands and wives suggests that, overall, both display low levels of depression, which is understandable in a sample from the general population. Husbands on average report an overall value of 11.32, while wives report a marginally higher value of 13.50. The distribution of the sample is fairly wide, with around 95 percent of the sample falling between zero and 29.12 for husbands, and between zero and 36.08 for wives. While wives score marginally higher, both partners score toward the low end of the scale. The scales themselves were found to have good reliability for both husband and wives with a Cronbach's alpha value of .818 and .879, respectively.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem was measured using the ten-item Rosenberg self-esteem scale (Rosenberg 1979). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with a series of statements using a four point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The statements are designed to gauge whether the individual holds a generally positive or negative view of their self-concept. Examples of these statements include "I feel I have a number of good qualities," and "I wish I could have more respect for myself". After reverse coding the negative items, responses were summed to create an index of the individual's overall self-esteem. Higher numbers can be interpreted as the individual having a more positive self-concept.

Examination of the descriptive statistics shown in table 7 for self-esteem suggests that overall, both husbands and wives have fairly positive self-perceptions. Husbands reported on average a combined score of 33.62 with wives reporting 32.9. Both scores are near the top of the forty-point scale. Examination of the standard deviation suggests there is a fair amount of variation in the sample, with around 95 percent falling between 23 and 40. As is typical in a non-clinical sample, few people have incredibly low self-esteem. The scales themselves were found to have good reliability for both husbands and wives, with a Cronbach's alpha value of .824 and .868, respectively.

Trust

Trust was measured on an eight-item dyadic trust scale (Larzelere and Huston 1980). The purpose of the scale is to measure trust in a specific relationship partner rather than any overall social motive of trust. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as, "My partner is primarily interested in his/her own welfare," and "I feel

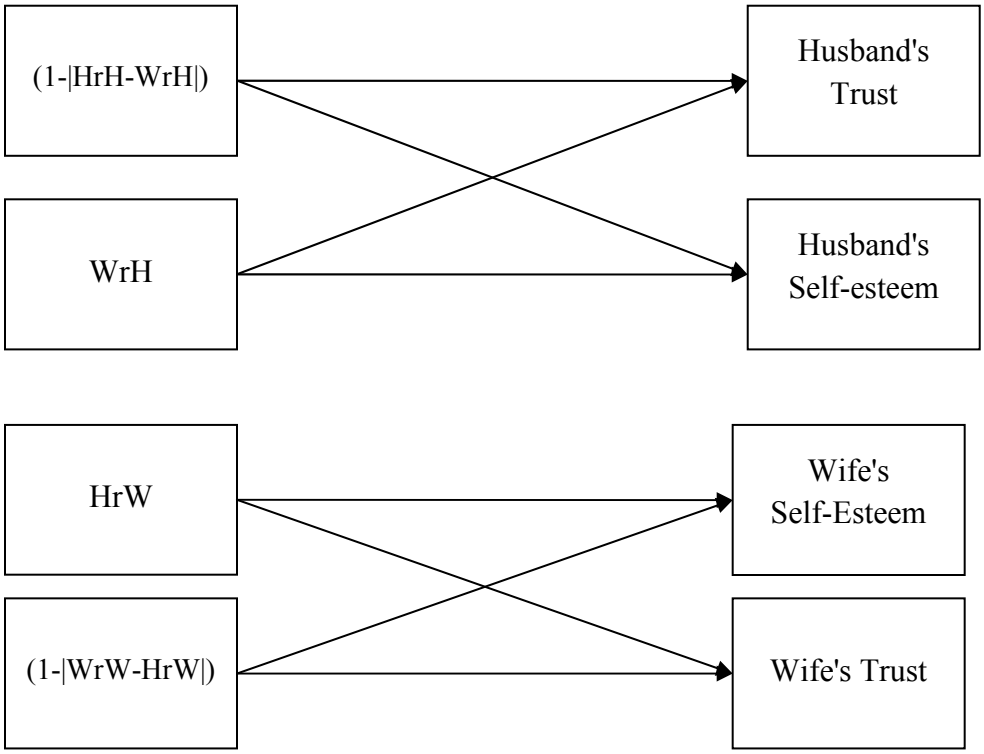
that I can trust my partner completely". Participants were asked to indicate their agreement on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. After reverse coding the negative items, responses were summed to create an index of the individual's overall trust for his or her partner. Higher scores indicate greater levels of trust by the participant for their partner.

Descriptive statistics shown in table 8 indicate that both partners report very high levels of trust in one another, which given that the sample is made up of newlyweds is to be expected. Husbands on average report an overall value of 48.44, while wives report a marginally higher value of 48.90. The distribution of the sample was moderate with approximately 95 percent of the sample falling between 35.9and the upper boundary for both husbands and wives. While wives score marginally higher, both scored toward the high end of the scale. The scales themselves were found to have good reliability for both husbands and wives, with a Cronbach's alpha value of .830 and .817, respectively.

Model

The current study will test the hypotheses of interest by specifying a combined model for both husbands and wives. The model (Figure 2) will test the simultaneous effects of self-verification and self-enhancement on self-esteem and trust. This will help determine how both self-motives are related to an individual's ratings of self-esteem and trust, and if so whether they each possess a unique effect.

Figure 2: Model 2



Chapter 4. Results

Zero Order Correlations

Table 7 shows the inter-correlations among study variables and reveals some interesting observations. First, correlations with self-esteem are mostly consistent with the hypothesized model. While self-esteem is not correlated with spouse appraisal for husbands ($r = .05$), it is significantly correlated for wives ($r = .17$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, self-esteem is significantly correlated with self-verification for both husbands ($r= .27$, $p < .05$) and wives ($r=.23$, $p < .05$). Second, correlations with trust are not consistent with the hypothesized model for the most part. Trust is not correlated with spouse appraisal for husbands ($r = .09$), but is significantly correlated for wives ($r = .16$, $p < .05$). Trust is not correlated with self-verification for either husbands ($r = .10$) or wives (.10). Third, while it is desirable for a moderator not to correlate with either predictor or dependent variables, depression correlates significantly with most of the variables in the hypothesized model. Depression correlates significantly with self-esteem for both husbands ($r = -.33$, $p < .05$) and wives ($r = -.32$, $p < .05$). Depression correlates significantly with trust, for both husbands ($r = -.35$, $p < .05$) and wives ($r = -.24$, $p < .05$). Depression correlates significantly with self-verification, for both husbands ($r = -.21$, $p < .05$) and wives ($r = -.29$, $p < .05$). Depression does not correlate significantly with spouse appraisal for husbands ($r = -.04$), but it does for wives ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$). Fourth, it is interesting to note that trust in the partner is very much related to how the spouse rates the partner. Trust and spouse appraisals are significantly correlated for both husbands ($r = .38$, $p < .05$) and wives ($r = .32$, $p < .05$).

Structural Equation Models

A series of nested models were tested to determine not only the best fitting model, but also the model with the most parsimonious structure. Additionally, unstandardized coefficients in each model were examined to determine any effects the introduction of new paths might have on the relationships between variables. A complete comparison can be found in appendix B, with analysis organized by model in table 9 and by independent variable in table 10. In all subsequent models all covariances between exogenous variable were specified along with all possible covariances between residual errors. A comparison of changes in residual correlations across models can be found in appendix B table 11.

Model 1: Null Model

Beginning with a null model specifying no relationships between any of the study variables, a predictably poor fit was found. A significant chi square value of 249.42, df=28 with $p<.001$ indicates the null hypothesis should be rejected--that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is not equal to the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an RMSEA of .159 supports the conclusion of a poor fitting model. This conclusion is further supported by an IFI of .000 and a TLI of -.334 indicating the proposed model fits poorly, especially when controlling for the complexity of the model. This supports the hypothesis that the specification of some relationships between these variables is warranted.

Model 2: Theoretical Model

The primary goal of the current study is to examine the differential effects of self-verification versus self-enhancement. To that end, model 2 included only the specific effects of self-enhancement and self-verification on self-esteem and trust, for both husband and wife, constraining all other relationships to zero. Results indicate that the model fits the data

poorly. A significant chi square value of 96.49, df=8 with p<.001 indicates the null hypothesis should be rejected--that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is not equal to the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an RMSEA of .15 supports the conclusion of a poor fitting model. This conclusion is further supported by an IFI of .644 and a TLI of -.189 indicating the proposed model fits poorly, especially when controlling for the complexity of the model. These results suggest that the relaxation of some constraints is warranted. Therefore, subsequent models systematically relax constraints, allowing certain paths to vary freely to determine the best fitting but most parsimonious model.

Models 3a, 3b, and 4: Spousal ratings

Next, model 3a adds asymmetric effects of wife's rating of husband predicting her own self-esteem and trust. A significant chi square value of 55.45, df=6 with p<.001 indicates the null hypothesis should be rejected--that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is not equal to the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an RMSEA of .16 supports the conclusion of a poor fitting model. This conclusion is further supported by an IFI of .797 and a TLI of -.392 indicating the proposed model fits poorly, especially when controlling for the complexity of the model.

In contrast, model 3b tested asymmetric effects of husband's rating of wife predicting his own self-esteem and trust. A significant chi square value of 32.89, df=6 with p<.001 indicates the null hypothesis should be rejected--that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is not equal to the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an RMSEA of .12 supports the conclusion of a poor fitting model. This conclusion is weakened by an IFI of .889, but a TLI of .243 indicates the proposed model fits poorly when controlling for the complexity of the model.

Finally, model 4 tested symmetric effects of spousal ratings on their own self-esteem and trust. In other words, in addition to the relationships specified in the theoretical model, this model predicts self-esteem and trust for both husband and wife using their own ratings of their spouse. A non-significant chi square value of 3.97, df=4 with p=.410 indicates the null hypothesis should not be rejected--that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is not significantly different from the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an RMSEA of .000 supports the conclusion of a good fitting model. This conclusion is further supported by an IFI of 1.00 and a TLI of 1.00 indicating the proposed model fits well, even when controlling for the complexity of the model.

Models 5a, 5b, and 6: Self-verification

The next series of models returns to the base theoretical model and explores the cross spouse effects of self-verification. Model 5a adds asymmetric effects allowing the measure of the husband's verification to predict the wife's self-esteem and trust. A significant chi square value of 86.55, df=6 with p<.001 indicates the null hypothesis should be rejected--that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is not equal to the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an RMSEA of .21 supports the conclusion of a poor fitting model. This conclusion is further supported by an IFI of .669 and a TLI of -1.27 indicating the proposed model fits poorly, especially when controlling for the complexity of the model.

In contrast, model 5b tested asymmetric effects allowing the measure of the wife's verification to predict the husband's self-esteem and trust. A significant chi square value of 85.08, df=6 with p<.001 indicates the null hypothesis should be rejected--that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is not equal to the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an RMSEA of .21 supports the conclusion of a poor fitting model. This

conclusion is further supported by an IFI of .675 and a TLI of -1.23 indicating the proposed model fits poorly, especially when controlling for the complexity of the model.

Finally, model 6 tested symmetric effects allowing the measure of the spouse's verification to predict the individual's ratings of self-esteem and trust. In other words, in addition to the relationships specified in the theoretical model, this model predicts self-esteem and trust for both husband and wife using the measure of their own verification. A significant chi square value of 84.50, df=4 with $p<.001$ indicates the null hypothesis should not be rejected--that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is significantly different from the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an RMSEA of .254 supports the conclusion of a good fitting model. This conclusion is further supported by an IFI of .672 and a TLI of -2.40 indicating the proposed model fits poorly, especially when controlling for the complexity of the model.

Model 7: The fully recursive model

Model 7 specified a fully recursive model. In the fully recursive model fit statistics cannot be generated as the model by most measures is found to fit perfectly. This is due to the specification of all viable paths between exogenous and endogenous variables. This model is included to be used as a point of comparison with the best fitting most parsimonious model. As can be reviewed in table 8 in appendix B model 4 is clearly the best fitting of the models so far, and is more parsimonious than model 7 a fully recursive model. Examination of the unstandardized coefficients demonstrates minimal differences between the two models, and suggests that model 4 is the best of the current series of models.

Model 4: Interpretation

Overall, the variables in model 4 are able to account for only a modest amount of the variation in husband's (R^2=.11) and wife's (R^2=.08) self-esteem (see Table 1), and in husband's (R^2=.15) and wife's (R^2=.12) trust. These finding suggest that self-enhancement and self-verification have an impact on self-esteem and trust as hypothesized, but that substantial variation remains unaccounted for.

Table 1

Model 2 Standardized Coefficients

Predictor	Dependent Variable	Husband Self-Esteem	Husband Trust	Wife Self-Esteem	Wife Trust
(1-|HrH-WrH|)		.25*	.01	--	--
WrH		.06	.03	-.01	.30*
(1-|WrW-HrW|)		--	--	.23*	.01
HrW		.18*	.37*	.16*	.11*
R^2		.11	.15	.08	.12

Note. *p<.05
-- constrained parameter

When examining the determinants of husband's self-esteem, it is interesting to note that his self-verification and his appraisal of his wife are significant predictors, whereas the wife's appraisal of her husband is not. Results for the husbands indicate that (1-|HrH-WrH|) (.25), HrW (.18), but not WrH, are significant predictors of their self-esteem. This means that the greater his self-verification, the greater his self-esteem--but his spouse's appraisal of him is not a significant predictor of his self-esteem, providing support for self-verification but not self-enhancement. This makes sense given the zero order correlations between these variables, and suggests that self-enhancement might not be relevant to the husband with regard to his self-esteem for this index of traits. Interestingly, a significant positive effect was

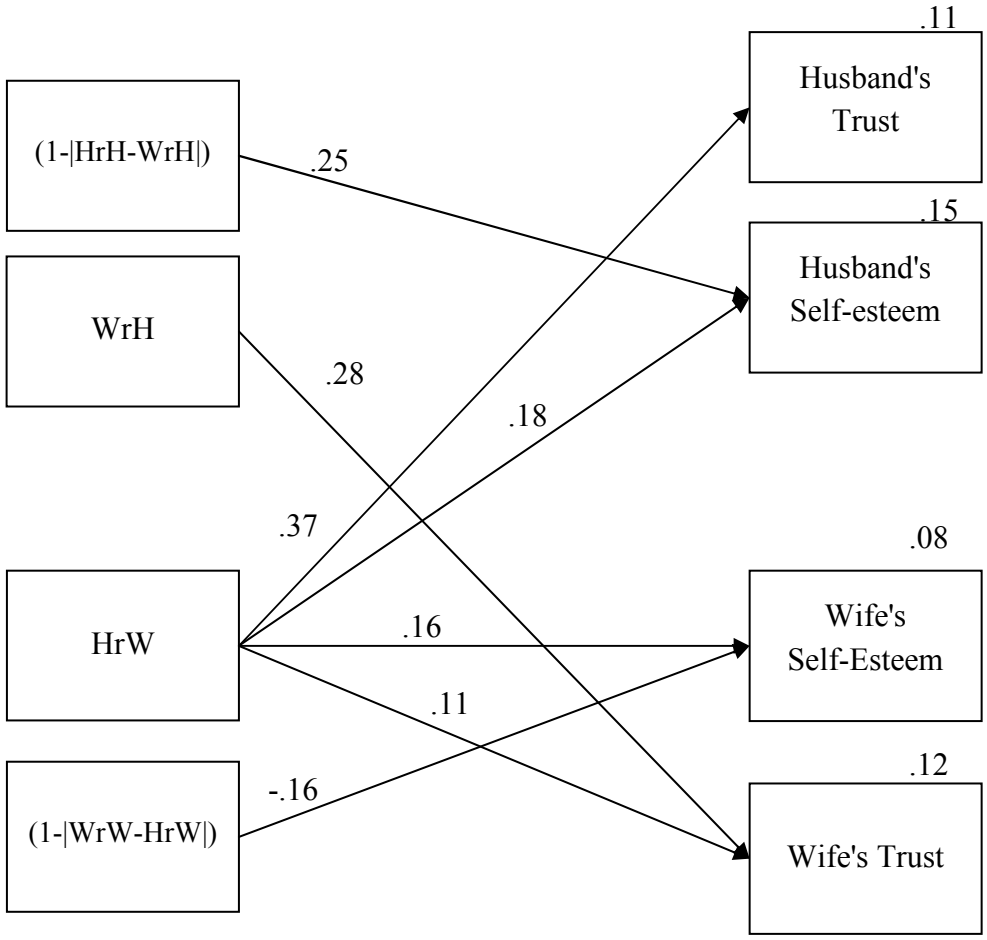
found for HrW on the husband's self-esteem. The more positively the husband rated his wife, the higher were his ratings of his self-esteem**.**

Examining the determinants of husband's trust, neither self-verification nor self-enhancement were found to be predictive of the husband's ratings of trust in his wife. The study failed to demonstrate a relationship between either of the self-motives and the husband's ratings of trust. A significant positive effect was found, however, for HrW on his ratings of trust in his wife. The more positively the husband rated his wife, the higher the ratings of his trust in her**.**

The results indicate that both self-verification, (1- |WrW-HrW|) (.23), and the husband's appraisal, HrW (.16), are significant predictors of the wife's self-esteem. This indicates the greater her self-verification, the higher her self-esteem--and independently, the more positive her husband's ratings of her, the higher her self-esteem. This provides support for unique effects of both self-verification and self-enhancement. In contrast to the results found for the husband, the wife's self-esteem does not appear to be influenced by her rating of her husband: suggesting how positively she views herself is not a function of the specific characteristics of her spouse.

With regard to a wife's trust, self-verification was not found to be predictive, but spouse appraisal (.11) was a significant predictor of a wife's rating of trust in her husband. The higher the husband rated his wife, the higher she rated her trust in her husband. Similarly, a significant positive effect was also found for WrH (.30). Higher ratings of the husband by the wife were associated with greater trust in the husband.

Figure 3: Diagram Model 4 with significant paths only



Support is found for four of the eight hypotheses. The current model clearly demonstrates effects for both self-enhancement and self-verification in the case of the wife, but only self-verification in the case of the husband in predicting individual self-esteem. In contrast, only the measure of self-enhancement predicts trust in a spouse, and only in the case of the wife.

Models 8 and 9: Depression as a Moderator

As highlighted in the review of the literature, depression is closely associated with both self-motives and self-esteem. This suggests that controlling for the effects of depression is warranted to clearly determine the unique effects of self-enhancement and self-verification.

As hypothesized, Models 8 and 9 test depression as a moderator for the effects found in separate spouse versions of model 4, which is the best fitting model.

A cross-group equality constraint procedure was used to test the influence of high versus low depression on the relationships of the self-motive variables for self-esteem and trust. In this instance a simple mean split was employed to determine low versus high depression. This procedure specifies separate models for the two groups, which in this case are those with low versus high levels of depression. Starting with an unconstrained model, where the program may estimate completely separate coefficients for the two groups, a series of successively rigid constraints are imposed. The models are then compared to the base model for significant changes in model fit. Additionally, a separate analysis was conducted for husbands versus wives to control for scenarios where the spouses' ratings of depressive symptoms are not equivalent. Hence, though the mean was used for both spouses to establish low versus high depression, the mean was slightly lower for husbands (11.32) than it was for wives (13.50).

A fully recursive unconstrained model for husbands was fit. Examination of the unstandardized regression coefficients (Table 2) indicates that the effects of the predictor variables on self-esteem and trust may be moderated by depression. Of specific note is a smaller effect for husband's verification and husband's rating of wife on self-esteem in the high depression group versus the low depression group. Subsequently, a smaller R^2 and larger residual variance is found in the high depression group. Whether these differences are meaningful will be tested by a comparison of model fit when they are constrained to be equal between the two groups.

Table 2

Unstandardized coefficients with husband's depression as a moderator

Group	IV	Husband Self-Esteem	Husband Trust
Low	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.033*	-.007
	WrH	.001	.008
	HrW	.018*	.048*
	R^2	.158	.155
	Residual Variance	12.196	19.881
High	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.014	.015
	WrH	.010	.005
	HrW	.007	.047*
	R^2	.036	.092
	Residual Variance	16.646	46.895

Note. *p<.05

A series of models were tested that constrained these coefficients to be equal between the high and low depression groups. Beginning with the regression weights, and followed by the variance of the residual, and finally the means and intercepts; these increasingly strict models were compared against the fully unconstrained model using a chi-square test. Constraining both regression weights to be equal between high and low depression groups resulted in a chi-square of 6.650, df=6 with p=.354. Using a chi-square difference test this was found to not differ significantly from the unconstrained model. A significant difference was found with the addition of the residual variance constraints with a chi-square of 38.546, df=8 with p<.001. In addition, constraining the means and intercepts, chi-square 91.416, df=13 with p<.001, fit significantly worse than the model containing the regression coefficient and residual error variance constraints. These findings lead to the conclusion that high versus low depressed husbands demonstrate differences in mean values and the variance

of the unexplained error of self-esteem and trust, but high versus low depression does not moderate the regression weights of the self-motive variables for self-esteem and trust.

A fully recursive unconstrained model for wives was fit. Examination of the unstandardized regression coefficients (Table 3) indicates that the effects of the predictor variables on self-esteem and trust may be moderated by depression. Of specific note is a smaller effect for husband's verification and husband's rating of wife on self-esteem in the high depression group versus the low depression group. Subsequently, a smaller R^2 and larger residual variance is found in the high depression group. Whether these differences are meaningful will be tested by a comparison of model fit when they are constrained to be equal between the two groups

Table 3

Unstandardized coefficients with wife's depression as a moderator

Group	IV	Wife Self-Esteem	Wife Trust
Low	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	.026*	.008
	WrH	-.003	.033*
	HrW	.015	.021
	R^2	.040	.092
	Residual Variance	24.195	32.131
High	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	.030*	-.011
	WrH	.000	.048*
	HrW	.022*	.012
	R^2	.101	.130
	Residual Variance	20.087	43.366

Note. *p<.05

Subsequently, as with the husbands, a series of models were tested that constrained the coefficients to be equal between the high and low depression groups. Beginning with the

regression weights, and followed by the variance of the residual, and finally the means and intercepts; these increasingly strict models were compared against the fully unconstrained model using a chi-square test. Constraining both regression weights to be equal between high and low depression groups resulted in a chi-square of 2.131, df=6 with p=.907. Using a chi-square difference test this was found not to differ significantly from the unconstrained model. A significant difference was also not found with the addition of the residual variance constraints with a chi-square of 6.813, df=8 with p=.557. In contrast, constraining the means and intercepts, chi-square 35.311, df=13 with p=.001, fit significantly worse than the model containing the regression coefficient and residual error variance constraints. These findings lead to the conclusion that high versus low depressed wives demonstrate differences in mean values, but high versus low depression does not moderate the regression weights of the self-motive variables for self-esteem and trust nor does it affect the variance of the residual error.

Overall, the results for both husbands and wives support the conclusion that in this instance depression is not moderating the relationship between the self-motives and self-esteem and trust. Even so, the relationships noted in the zero order correlations between depression and both self-esteem and trust support the inclusion of depression as a predictor. Model 10 was designated to explore the independent effects of depression, which extended model 2 by including depression of both the husband and wife as covariates.

Models 10, 11, and 12: Depression as a Covariate

Model 10 tested the independent effects of depression on an individual's self esteem and trust. A non-significant chi square value was found for model 12 of 11.79, df=4 with p<.001, indicating the null hypothesis should be rejected: that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is not equal to the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an

RMSEA of .08 supports the conclusion of a somewhat poorly fitting model. Additionally, this conclusion is further supported by an IFI of .981 and a TLI of .693, indicating that the proposed model fits better than a baseline model, but when controlling for the complexity of the model is found to fit poorly.

Model 11, another fully recursive model, added the cross spouse effect of depression into the model. Once again, fit statistics may not be calculated, but it is possible to examine the unstandardized coefficients to determine whether your spouse's depression exerts an effect on your self-esteem and trust. In addition, if this is the case, model 11 in comparison to model 10 allows us to determine if this influences any of the others significant relationships. Results indicate that while no significant cross-spouse effects were found for depression on self-esteem, significant effects were found for wife's depression predicting husband's trust in her. In addition, examination of the unstandardized coefficients demonstrate that the inclusion of the cross-spouse effects have trivial effects on the intra-individual relationships of individual depression on self-esteem and trust.

Finally model 12 removed the cross-effects of verification as well as the cross spouse effects for depression on spouses self-esteem. Given the failure to find significant effects demonstrated in previous models, along with trivial changes in other coefficients, the decision was make to remove these paths and specify a more parsimonious model. A non-significant chi square value was found for model 12 of 5.14, df=6 with p=.527, indicating the null hypothesis should be retained: that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is equal to the observed COV seen in the data. In addition, an RMSEA of .000 supports the conclusion of a well-fitting model. Additionally, this conclusion is further supported by an

IFI of 1.00 and a TLI of 1.02, indicating that the proposed model fits better than a baseline model, even controlling for the complexity of the model.

Model 12: Interpretation

Overall, the variables in the model (Table 4) were able to account for a greater amount of the variation in husband's (.17) and wife's (.13) individual self-esteem than in model 4. Interestingly, the model was able to account for a larger portion of the variation in husband's trust (.24) than for wife's (.15). These finding suggest depression plays an independent role, along with self-verification and spouse appraisal, in determining self-esteem and trust in marriage, but that a substantial amount of variation remains unaccounted for.

Table 4

Model 12 Standardized coefficients controlling for individual depression

Predictor	Dependent Variable	Husband Self-Esteem	Husband Trust	Wife Self-Esteem	Wife Trust
(1-|HrH-WrH|)		.21*	-.05	--	--
WrH		.05	-.01	-.03	.28*
Husband Depression		-.25*	-.29*	--	-.05
(1-|WrW-HrW|)		--	--	.16*	-.03
HrW		.14*	.30*	.11*	.07
Wife Depression		--	-.17*	-.25*	-.18*
R^2		.17	.24	.13	.15

Note. *p<.05
-- constrained parameter

With the exception of any significant impact by WrH, results for the husband indicate that (1-|HrH-WrH|) (.21), depression (-.25), and HrW (.14), are significant predictors of his self-esteem. As predicted, higher ratings of depressive symptoms were associated with lower ratings of self-esteem. Additionally, after controlling for depression a significant effect was

still found for self-verification on self-esteem, but the coefficient is somewhat smaller than that found in model 4.

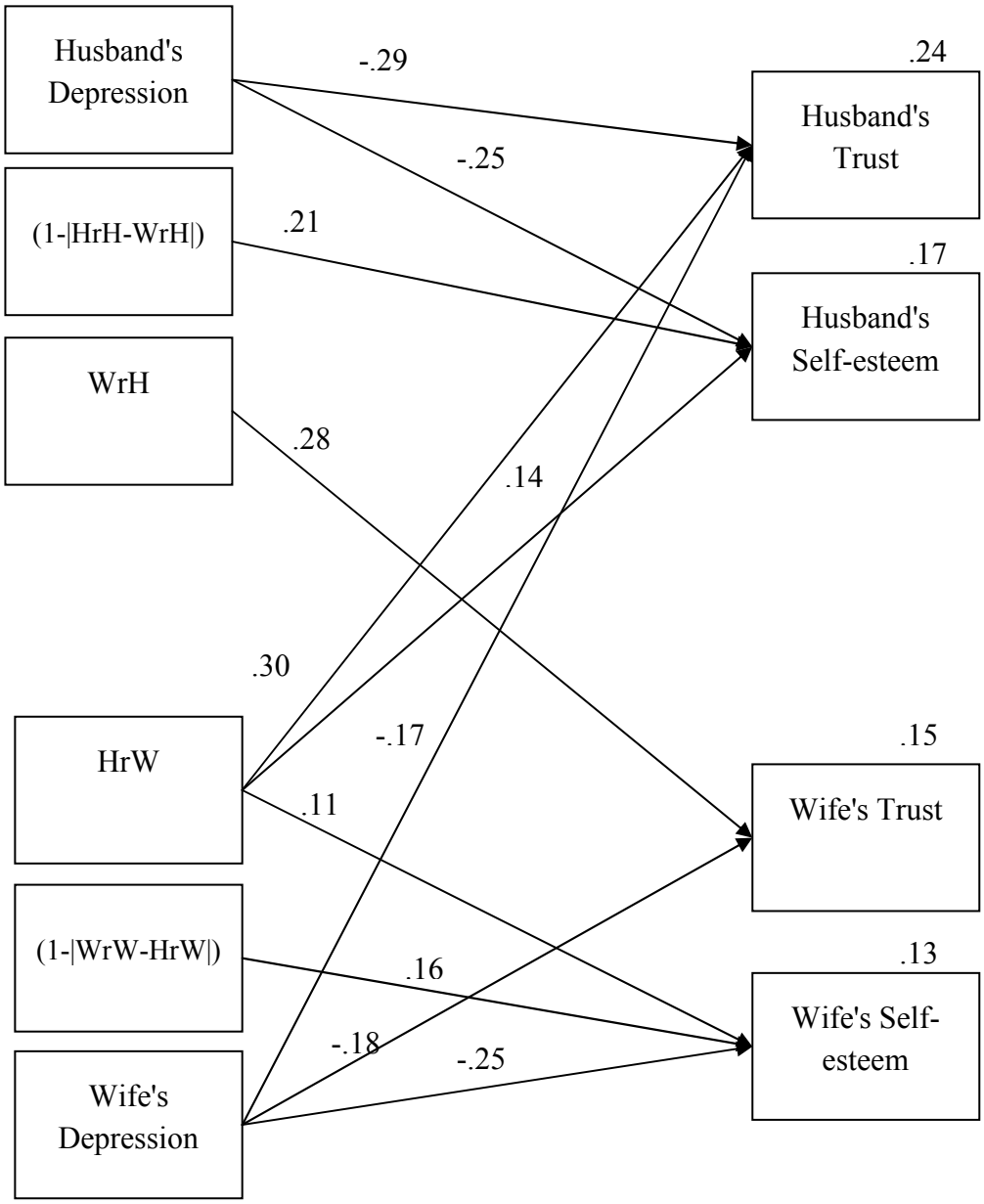
Significant effects were found for both husband's and wife's depression related to husband's trust. Significant negative effects were found for husband's depression on his rating of his trust in his wife (-.29). The greater the husband's depressive symptoms, the lower his ratings of trust in his wife. Additionally the wife's depression (-.17) was also found to be a significant predictor of her husband's trust. It would appear that increases in depression for either husband or wife exert a moderate negative effect on the husband's trust in his wife.

In contrast, results for the wife indicate that (1-|WrW-HrW|) (.16), depression (-.25), and HrW (.11), but not WrH, are significant predictors of her self-esteem. This suggests that again, even controlling for depression, both self-verification and self-enhancement are predictive of a wife's self-esteem, but, the coefficients are slightly smaller than those found in model 4 (as was found in the analysis of the husband's data). As expected, wife's depression predicted lower self-esteem.

Self-verification was not found to be predictive of a wife's ratings of trust in her husband, but in this instance neither was the measure of self-enhancement. Since significant effects were found for both WrH (.28) and wife's depression (-.18), and depression was the only change in model 12, this suggests that the weakening of the relationship noted for self-esteem from the inclusion of depression is also occurring for trust. Supporting this conclusion is the higher ratings of depressive symptoms associated with lower ratings of trust in the husband. This relationship between depression and trust results in the elimination of self-enhancement as a significant predictor. Finally, it is interesting to note that husband's depression failed to predict the wife's rating of trust in her husband. This is in contrast to the

significant relationship between such factors found for the husband. It would appear that a wife's symptoms of depression negatively impact the husband's trust in her, but symptoms of depression by the husband do not impact her trust in him in the same way.

Figure 4: Diagram Model 5 with significant paths only



It would appear that while the inclusion of depression as a relationship moderator was not supported its inclusion as a covariate does have merit. The complex relationship noted in the literature between depression and outcome variables, along with the results of the current study, highlight the need to control for depression when examining the effects of self-enhancement and self-verification.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The primary goal of the current study was to understand the relative impact between self-enhancement and self-verification, which in the literature have typically been approached as competing motives in seeking feedback. The results demonstrate that understanding the issue in diametric absolutes inappropriately simplifies the complexity of the relationship. Subsequently, a few interesting points can be drawn from the results of the current study—enumerated here and discussed in greater depth below.

First, in some situations it appears that self-enhancement and self-verification work simultaneously to influence self-esteem. The liaison is influenced by a similar relationship involving depression. Secondly, the predicted relationship between these self-motives and ratings of trust did not turn out to be significant failing to support a theoretical and intuitive relationship between these constructs. Thirdly, the results showed differences in the impact of self-enhancement between husbands and wives suggesting that gender and individual differences could be an important factor both for interpreting effects and designing measures.

The first interesting finding was that distinct effects were found for both self-enhancement and self-verification for wives suggesting that in many cases these are not mutually exclusive influences. The implications of this are contingent on the positivity found in participant's self-rating. If an individual has positive self-ratings, seeking out positive spouse appraisal serves the dual purpose of both enhancing and verifying their self-concept. In the current study these individuals would be women who rate themselves as having high self-esteem and low levels of depression who receive verifying positive spouse appraisal. These individuals are typically not a subject of theoretical contention (Swann 1990) as they fit nicely into the predictions of both self-enhancement and self-verification: providing

support for the argument that it is possible to demonstrate unique effects for both self-motives. Thus, the current study provides support for the contention that self-enhancement and self-verification are distinct processes even when they have similar effects.

Alternatively, those with low self-ratings and an enhancing spouse, or low self-ratings and a deprecating spouse, provoke a more complex interpretation. These individuals suffer from either a lack of verifying or positive feedback. Interestingly, the current model predicts that women who would have the lowest self-esteem would be those with high self-ratings, and a deprecating spouse; they are receiving neither positive nor verifying information. Swann (1990) and others (Shrauger 1975; McFarlin and Blascovich 1981; Moreland and Sweeney 1984) suggest that what is being observed is behavior driven by two distinct processes. They propose that self-enhancement is a more immediate reaction to feedback since it requires less cognitive resources to process. Their interpretation agrees with Zajonc's (1980) and others'(Epstein 1985; Gazzaniga 1985) assertions that individuals tend to make initial simplistic judgments whether something is favorable or unfavorable. In contrast, self-verification requires deeper cognitive processes due to the need to compare the feedback to self-views, a process more cognitively demanding and time consuming.

For the current study this theory offers insight in interpreting the results: initial positive or negative reactions to a spouse's personal comment/judgment have an effect on the individual's self-esteem. Subsequent comparisons of that judgment with self-ratings do not annul the affective reaction; they supplements it with a second affective reaction based upon the consistency between the self and other ratings. Examination of the coefficients further supports the theory even if highly positive, self-enhancing feedback is received, if it is highly discrepant from self-views then the net effect on self-esteem can be negative since self-

verification appears to have a slightly stronger relationship with self-esteem. This suggests that attempting to determine which type of feedback is preferred captures only half of the process, and without comparing the initial affective reaction to enhancement and the subsequent affective reaction to verification, both effects could potentially be underestimated, or overestimated, depending on the individual.

Initial enhancing feedback may result in higher ratings for self-esteem, but subsequent comparisons of this feedback to the individual's self-ratings qualifies this initial positive outcome. If these self-ratings are highly discrepant from spousal ratings, the negative effects resulting from failure to verify overwhelms the positive effects obtained through self-enhancement. In other words, the larger coefficients for self-verification suggests the beneficial effects from positive feedback are quickly lost when failing to verify the individual's own self-ratings

Depression might also play a larger role in these dynamics. Conceptualization of depression as a state that can increase or decrease depending on the effects of exogenous variables is one method, but depression as an enduring trait also warrants discussion. In the current study participants were asked to rate themselves using a clinical measure of depression, but descriptive statistics demonstrate that the majority of the sample reported only low levels of depression.

This raises an interesting question. The work by Peterson and Seligman (1983) suggests that the clinically depressed are characterized by a tendency to make external attributions for positive events and internal attributions for negative ones, calling into question their ability to effectively engage in self-enhancement. These individuals whom theories of self-verification suggest prefer verifying negative feedback could be unable to

processes the initial positive effects of self-enhancement, thereby serving to further exacerbate the negative effects of failing to verify their self-ratings. Unfortunately, the current study failed to find a moderational effect for depression. There are two reasons why the results of the current study do not fully undermine the possibility of depression serving as more than just an independent effect on self-esteem. First, there is a body of literature that has found support for it operating in this way (Alloy and Ahrens 1987; Hymes and Akiyama 1991). Second, the conclusion that there is no moderational effect is suspect due to the use of a sub-clinical sample. Even individuals in the high depression group in the current study reported only relatively low depressive symptoms when compared to a true clinical population. If the sample had included those with clinical depression then the theorized effects for self-enhancement might have been found, and the negative consequences of failing to verify might have been more pronounced.

The second interesting finding of the current study (*lack* of finding might be more accurate) was the inability to demonstrate a relationship between self-enhancement and self-verification for ratings of trust in a spouse. The review of the literature suggests there is some support for a relationship between self-enhancement and trust (Paulhus 1998; Taylor et al. 2003; Montoya and Insko 2008; Singh et al. 2009) but the relationship has been inadequately explored. Hence, the lack of results for self-enhancement is disappointing but of little note. In contrast, the relationship between self-verification and trust is much more explicit (Burke and Stets 1999), and the predictability demonstrated by consistent verification is central to the basic definition of trust described by Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna (1985). The failure of the current study to find a relationship could possibly be attributed to factors discussed below.

First, the nature of the sample could possibly have contributed to a lack of variability in trust making predication very difficult. Examination of the descriptive statistics showed, as might be expected in a sample of newlyweds, that trust in a spouse was on average fairly high. Those who have examined dyadic trust in the past have found that this group typically tends to report some of the highest levels of trust (Larzelere and Huston 1980). On the other hand, this explanation is somewhat questionable in light of the strong relationship found between an individual's rating of a spouse and their rating of their trust for that spouse.

Alternatively, the argument could be made that trust is being driven by internal perceptions and affective variables rather than external feedback, even when said feedback is discrepant from these internal perceptions. In the current model, an individual's ratings of trust in their spouse is being driven by a combination of how they rate their spouse and individual depression.

It seems odd that participants' trust in the spouse would be so little influenced by how well or how accurately the spouse rates them. A potential explanation lies in the nature of the sample and the duration of the relationship. Kollock (1994) examined the emergence of trust in a system of trading partners. He specifically investigated the formation of new relationships in light of a history of limited interaction. He found that individuals in his sample tended to use what he termed *reputation* to make decisions. In Kollock's study reputation is defined as a rating of an individual's attributes. Applying this concept to the current study, it is reasonable to assume that since the sample is composed of newlyweds, their relationship history is likely to be relatively short. Subsequently, at this stage of the relationship the partner's reputation, or the individual's ratings of the partner, is driving the individual's ratings of trust since the history of feedback is relatively short. There is a lot of

supposition in this explanation, but future research could examine the effects that length of relationship has on the connection between self-verification and trust. Letzring and Noftle (2010) demonstrated that verification becomes more important as the length of a relationship increases; it is therefore reasonable to assume that as consistency of behavior becomes more important to an individual, it will supplant reputation as a driver of trust ratings.

Furthermore, given the lack of importance of self-enhancement or self-verification on trust, the current results show that depression, both the individual's and--in the case of men--their wife's, were the only other significant variables. Interestingly, a wife's trust was influenced only by how she rated her husband, and her own depression, which are both, internal to the individual. In contrast, husbands were influenced by these variables, but they were also influenced by their wife's depression, which we can assume they sensed in some way. These results are not surprising, as depression has been shown to have a negative relationship with trust (Schneider et al. 2011). It is surprising the extent to which ratings of spousal trust were influenced, not by how accurately or positively their spouse rates them, but primarily by participants' emotional state. As was just discussed with reputation, the importance of emotional state might recede over time, but in the current study it was shown to be a significant indicator of spousal trust.

The third interesting finding has to do with gender and individual differences. Self-motive results were not equivalent between husbands and wives. The primary difference between husbands and wives is the significant measure of enhancement effect found only for wives. There are at least two possible explanations for this. One relates to a broader question of gender differences in the benefits of self-enhancement, while the other more narrowly

focuses on the difference in centrality of the measure of self for husbands' versus wives' self - concepts.

As discussed previously a limited amount of research has examined the connection between self-enhancement and interpersonal relationships. Research suggests that the connection is complex and distinguishes between the potential for positive intrapersonal effects on mental health and negative interpersonal effects. The current study found no effects for self-enhancement on spousal trust, but the gender differences for self-enhancement on self-esteem could be explained by the different social rewards given to men and women when they self-enhance A study by Joiner, Voh, Katz, Kwon, and Kline (2003) found that excessive self-enhancement by men resulted in less favorable evaluations by others, while excessive self-enhancement by women resulted in more favorable ones. They suggest that it is important to consider both the gender of the individual and the gender of the interaction partner in order to fully understand the effect. They propose that these differences could be rooted in the different ways that men versus women construct their self.

Work by Cross and Madson (1997) theorize that men tend to construct an independent self, while women tend to construct a more interdependent self-concept. The implications of this are that men tend to work primarily toward fulfilling their internal traits and attributes. In contrast, women tend to work more toward maintaining connectedness with others. Thus, it is possible to theorize that interpersonal enhancement is more important for women than men. Husbands focus on whether they are being verified, but may be potentially less interested in any interpersonal enhancement that might be available from their wives. Wives also appear to be focused on verification, but having a more interpersonal self-construal seem to be more interested than their husbands in spousal appraisal. This work and

the current findings suggest that while self-verification tends to be fairly robust across different populations, the desire or preferred methods for self-enhancement might depend upon individual differences. Additional analysis sought to determine if husbands and wives differed in regards to the composition of a latent construct of self-concept formed from the traits presented in the study. In addition, an effort was also made to determine if husbands versus wives respond differently to self-discrepancies in these traits. Both of these points present potential explanations for the gender differences found in the current study. Complete results may be found in appendix C.

A latent factor model was separately successfully fit for both husbands chi-square = 1.75, df=2 with p=.42 and wives chi-square = 1.8, df=2 with p=.40 (Table 12). In both cases factor loadings were found to be fairly mediocre. The factor loadings for the husband ranged from .29 to .77, while the factor loadings for the wife ranged from .48 to.82 (Table 13). Comparing the specific traits between spouses it appears that intelligence for example loads much more highly for women (.48) than it does for men (.29) as does likeability with loadings of .82 for women and .62 for men. In contrast, husbands (.72) demonstrate a higher factor loading than wives (.51) for being an understanding person. Overall it would appear that the primary component driving the description of their own self-concept for women is likeability, while for men it is being an understanding person. These results support the idea that men's versus women's self-concepts might place emphasis on different traits.

Next, separate factor models were specified for the self-discrepancies. A latent factor model was successfully fit for husbands chi-square =.012, df=2 with p=.994, but a non-positive definite error prevented fitting an adequate model for wives (Table 12). Such an error indicates that the determinate of the matrix was not positive making it impossible to

invert the matrix, and complete the procedure. Even so, a more mediocre fit could be obtained so factor loadings will be interpreted. The factor loadings for the husband ranged from .35 to.69, while the factor loadings for the wife ranged from .27 to.78 (Table 14). For husbands it appears that that a discrepancy in physical attractiveness had the most impact, with a factor loading of .69, but for wives the most impact was for discrepancies in likeability and friendliness with factor loadings of .78 and .69 respectively. These results provide further support for the idea that men and women both construct their self-concept differently and are attuned to differenced factors when it comes to self-verification.

For the sake of comparison model 4 was rerun with latent factors in the place of observed variables. A significant chi square value of 534.98, df=221 with $p<.001$ indicates the null hypothesis should be rejected--that the implied COV produced by the model parameters is significantly different from the observed COV seen in the data. In contrast, an RMSEA of .067 supports the conclusion of a reasonably good fitting model. The coefficients determined by this model were found to closely approximate those found using summative indexes.

Overall, it would appear that there is some indication that future research should pay closer attention to the gender differences when working with measures of self-concept, especially when examining such closely intertwined concepts as self-enhancement and self-verification. An interesting point for future research would be delineating these gender differences and exploring potential factors contributing to them.

A potential complimentary explanation for the current findings focuses on individual variation in self-motive strength. A few studies have determined that relative desire for enhancing, versus verifying feedback is different depending upon the sample population.

Neiss, Sedikides, Shahinfar, and Kupersmidt (2006) found a preference for confirming feedback when working with a group of incarcerated boys, while Cai, He, Sedikides, and Gaertner (2010) found a preference for positive feedback in a general sample of American and Chinese individuals. Neither of these studies set out to examine individual variation in motive strength; instead they were oriented toward average preference. Other researchers have attempted to examine individual variation in motive strength but were unable to clearly articulate the relationship between self-enhancement and self-verification (Gregg, Hepper, and Sedikides 2011). The ability of the current study to resolve this issue is limited, but the author hopes the results contribute to an ongoing dialogue. Future research could examine the potential presence of individual variation in self-motive strength as it relates to both individual and contextual factors.

An alternative, or possibly complimentary, explanation for the different pattern of effects obtained for husbands versus wives concerns the traits used as a measure of self-concept. Work exploring issues of social identity demonstrates that individuals place emphasis on different components making up their self-concept(Stryker 1980). Certain concepts might be more or less salient depending upon the specific roles or groups to which the individual belongs. The current study used a measure that combined rating of intelligence, physical attractiveness, friendliness, likability, and understanding. It is possible these traits were a more important component of women's self-concept than of men's. Twenge (1997) found that women are prone to endorse both masculine and feminine traits, but men are unlikely to endorse feminine traits. Using the Bem sex role inventory and the personal attributes questionnaire, Twenge found that men and women are almost indistinguishable in their willingness to use instrumental descriptors related to stereotypical

masculine traits. In contrast, men are unlikely to use more expressive feminine stereotyped traits in describing themselves. For the current study it is possible that the use of more expressive characteristics such as friendliness, likability, and understanding may have generated a measure that was less salient to the self-concepts of the men. In addition, some have demonstrated that individuals in different roles are rewarded with social acceptance for using different tactics (Anthony, Holmes, and Wood 2007). Individuals are frequently evaluated on physical appearance, but for those in interdependent social roles their self-esteem is more sensitive to communal qualities. It is possible that this is another factor that is contributing to the failure to find a similar self-enhancement effect for men.

Overall, individual differences could have influenced the results of the current analysis in two distinct ways. First, different sample populations may demonstrate varying self-motive strengths. In other words, some populations might be more inclined to engage in self-enhancement and do so to a greater or lesser extent based upon social factors. It is possible that individuals may learn that different avenues are available through which they may self-enhance depending upon the culture they grow up in and the social roles that they occupy. Second, the measures necessary to examine these effects might possibly need to be tuned to the components of the self-concept that are most salient to that population in order to differentiate lack of interest in self-enhancement from lack of interest in the measured traits. In the current study, self-ratings had only a modest correlation with self-esteem, which could indicate that these traits were only of minor interest to the individual when it came to evaluating their self-concept. The author believes that attention to both of these suggestions could allow for a clearer test of self-motive effects in future research, and that such research could be more effectively compared to the body of work that already exists.

Finally, certain limitations exist that influence the overall interpretation of these results. These have been referenced throughout the discussion section, but it is necessary to focus directly on one major caveat. As mentioned at various points throughout the manuscript, self-verification was calculated using the spouse's actual ratings of the individual rather than the individual's perception of those ratings. This approach was based upon limitation in the data, but it has precedence and has been used effectively in other studies. Nevertheless, it must be acknowledged that spouses' actual ratings are only a reasonable proxy for reflected appraisal since, there is no way to know whether the individual is aware of how the spouse sees him or her. This question is always debatable, but the results found here would suggest that the individual is aware and significantly influenced by the spouse's appraisals. This researcher believes that the argument that participants were aware of how their spouse actually rated them, at least in this case, is a reasonable one.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

As stated in the introduction, the goal of the current study was to resolve some of the conflicting advice couples have received about the inclination of their spouses' for accurate versus positive feedback. The results suggest that this is a complex issue, that defies a simple solution. Solving the problem requires more specific information about both the individual and the spouse.

In the current study, if the wife is the one supplying the feedback, the husband appears concerned only about the extent that it matches how he views himself. This suggests that verifying men's views of themselves is the best approach for bolstering their self-esteem. An important caveat to this advice is that the finding comes from a sample population where the majority of men had rated themselves fairly positively. In contrast, the literature suggests that in instances where husbands are depressed and rate themselves negatively, they may still seek self-verifying feedback, but giving it to them might be counterproductive in the long term. Curiously, neither self-enhancement nor self-verification has an effect on how much the husband trusts his wife. This might change over the course of the marriage, but addressing this is beyond the scope of the current analysis.

Answering the question of what kind of feedback the wife would prefer is even more complex. The current study demonstrates that both positive and verifying information bolsters women's self-esteem. In most cases women rated themselves fairly positively, so positive feedback serves dual duty as both enhancement and verification. In cases where the husband's feedback serves this dual purpose, the wife may be especially motivated to seek it.

Alternatively, in instances where women rate themselves poorly, a clear answer is more difficult. The current results suggest that positive feedback will bolster their self-

esteem, but the further it is from their self-ratings the greater the negative impact. This would appear to generate a lose-lose situation for husbands, because giving negative feedback will cause distress, but giving positive feedback will as well. Reflection on how these conflicting motivations might be occurring gives such couples a glimmer of hope about how to get out of this dilemma. It is likely that the sacrifice of the short-term benefits of excessively positive feedback might be necessary in order to obtain the potentially lasting benefits of more accurate assessment. Previous research, as well as the current study suggest that the effects of self-enhancement are not a panacea. Additionally, some research suggests that the desire for this kind of quick self-esteem boost diminishes over the course of a long-term relationship (Campbell et al. 2006), and that to continue it can have significant repercussions for the health of the relationship (Burke and Harrod 2005). Finally, as with husbands, neither self-enhancement nor self-verification affected a wife's trust in her husband. This might also change over time, but is beyond the scope of the current analysis.

Overall the current study cannot offer simple advice to someone put on the spot by his or her spouse with the question, “How do I look in this?” The current study can only offer a better understanding of the dynamics at work and generate interest in further research. Future work should continue the current study's effort to disentangle the relationship between self-motives, especially with more diverse populations. It is the author's hope that the current study will refocus the theoretical discussion away from a battle over a self-enhancement versus self-verification approach, and toward a more complex, integrated conceptualization of these self-motives.

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Table 5
Mean Ratings of Personal Attributes by Husbands and Wives

	HrH		WrH		(1-|HrH-WrH|)		WrW		HrW		(1-|WrW-HrW|)	
Item	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Intelligence.....	77.13	11.23	80.95	10.08	10.04*	9.27	73.54	12.71	78.39	10.99	10.36*	10.05
Physical appearance.....	70.29	13.31	81.76	12.68	15.24*	13.22	69.56	14.26	83.34	11.63	16.76*	13.18
Being likeable	80.21	11.96	86.00	12.30	11.69*	10.22	78.69	12.55	85.72	11.27	12.21*	10.48
Friendliness.....	79.18	13.22	84.27	14.84	12.33*	11.19	80.26	13.65	84.97	12.52	12.39*	10.98
Being understanding	76.01	14.93	82.59	13.24	13.93*	12.54	81.07	13.00	80.71	13.90	12.49*	11.41
Total.....	382.82	45.59	415.57	45.96	-62.04*	37.99	383.13	48.10	413.12	41.42	-63.21*	35.17

Note. N ranges from 312 to 313.HrH = husband's rating of husband; WrH = wife's rating of husband; WrH = wife's rating of husband; HrW = husband's rating of wife.*p<.05

Table 6
Mean Responses to Self-Esteem Items by Husbands and Wives

	Husbands			Wives		
Item	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*
I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.	3.56	0.58	313	3.51	0.65	311
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	3.58	0.57	313	3.55	0.64	311
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.*	3.68	0.56	313	3.61	0.68	310
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	3.47	0.57	313	3.29	0.70	311
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.*	3.46	0.72	313	3.53	0.78	310
I take a positive attitude toward myself.	3.31	0.62	313	3.21	0.68	310
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	3.11	0.65	313	3.18	0.64	310
I wish I could have more respect for myself.*	2.92	0.82	313	2.78	0.92	311
I certainly feel useless at times.*	3.06	0.78	313	2.99	0.83	311
At times, I think I am no good at all.*	3.47	0.70	313	3.29	0.84	311

Note. Responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). *Reverse coded item.

Table 7

Mean Responses to Depression Items by Husbands and Wives

	Husbands			Wives		
Item	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Feel bothered by things that don't usually bother you?	1.14	1.33	313	1.39	1.34	311
Not feel like eating; your appetite was poor?	0.71	1.18	313	1.10	1.41	310
Feel that you could not shake off the blues even with help from your family or friends?	0.45	0.94	313	0.78	1.36	310
Have trouble keeping your mind on what you were doing?	1.46	1.46	312	1.53	1.62	311
Feel depressed?	0.78	1.21	313	1.04	1.37	311
Feel that everything you did was an effort?	1.32	1.63	312	1.25	1.51	311
Feel fearful?	0.58	1.16	312	0.69	1.27	309
Sleep restlessly?	1.61	1.69	313	1.67	1.78	311
Talk less than usual?	0.94	1.16	313	0.85	1.22	311
Feel lonely?	0.36	0.78	313	0.67	1.21	311
Feel sad?	0.62	1.16	313	0.99	1.34	310
Feel you could not get going?	1.44	1.44	313	1.51	1.66	310

Note. Responses ranged from 0 (*not at all in the past week*) to 7 (*seven days in the past week*).

Table 8

Mean Responses to Dyadic Trust Items by Husbands and Wives

	Husbands			Wives		
Item	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*
My partner is primarily interested in his/her own welfare.*	5.63	1.23	313	5.58	1.48	311
There are times when my partner cannot be trusted.*	6.37	1.10	313	6.37	1.15	311
My partner is perfectly honest and truthful with me.	6.07	1.24	313	6.08	1.18	311
I feel that I can trust my partner completely.	6.41	1.08	313	6.47	1.08	310
My partner is truly sincere in his/her promises.	6.22	1.07	313	6.24	1.14	311
I feel that my partner does not show me enough consideration.*	5.31	1.55	313	5.48	1.58	311
My partner treats me fairly and justly.	6.02	1.06	313	6.18	1.09	311
I feel that my partner can be counted on to help me.	6.41	0.85	313	6.53	0.98	311

Note. Responses ranged from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*). *Reverse coded item.

Table 9
Correlations Among Study Variables

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. (1-|HrH-WrH|)	--											
2. (1-|WrW-HrW|)	0.10	--										
3. HrW	0.18*	0.06	--									
4. HrH	0.63*	0.01	0.46*	--								
5. WrH	0.15*	0.25*	0.16*	0.24*	--							
6. WrW	-0.10	0.61*	0.28*	0.10	0.51*	--						
7. Husband Self-Esteem	0.27*	0.01	0.23*	0.33*	0.05	0.02	--					
8. Wife Self-Esteem	0.02	0.23*	0.17*	-0.01	0.07	0.33*	0.16*	--				
9. Husband Depression	-0.21*	0.05	-0.19*	-0.25*	-0.04	0.08	-0.33*	-0.11	--			
10. Wife Depression	-0.11	-0.29*	-0.19*	-0.06	-0.18*	-0.27*	-0.08	-0.32*	0.09	--		
11. Husband Trust	0.10	0.07	0.38*	0.12*	0.09	-0.02	0.15*	0.12*	-0.35*	-0.25*	--	
12. Wife Trust	0.05	0.10	0.16*	0.03	0.32*	0.13*	0.12*	0.16*	-0.09	-0.24*	0.33*	--

Note: HrH = husband's rating of husband; WrH = wife's rating of husband; WrH = wife's rating of husband; HrW = husband's rating of wife. *p<.05.

Table 10
Model Fit Comparison

Model	X^2(df)	P	IFI	TLI	RMSEA
1	249.14 (28)	<.001	.000	-.334	.159
2	87.16 (8)	<.001	.672	-.671	.178
3a	55.45 (6)	<.001	.797	-.392	.163
3b	32.89 (6)	<.001	.889	.243	.120
4	3.97 (4)	.410	1.00	1.00	.000
5a	86.55 (6)	<.001	.669	-1.27	.207
5b	85.08 (6)	<.001	.675	-1.23	.206
6	84.50 (4)	<.001	.672	-2.40	.254
7*	--	--	--	--	--
10	11.79 (4)	.019	.981	.693	.079
11*	--	--	--	--	--
12	5.14 (6)	.527	1.00	1.02	.000

Note *=Fully recursive Model

Table 11

Unstandardized Coefficient Comparison By Model

Model	IV	Husband Self-Esteem	Husband Trust	Wife Self-Esteem	Wife Trust
1	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	--	--	--	--
	WrH	--	--	--	--
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	--	--	--	--
	HrW	--	--	--	--
	Husband Depression	--	--	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	--	--
2	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.031	.015	--	--
	WrH	.007	.002	--	--
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	--	--	.033	.016
	HrW	--	--	.014	.006
	Husband Depression	--	--	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	--	--
3a	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.030	.014	--	--
	WrH	.008	.014	.000	.045
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	--	--	.033	.002
	HrW	--	--	.014	.000
	Husband Depression	--	--	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	--	--
3b	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.027	.003	--	--
	WrH	.004	-.007	--	--
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	--	--	.032	.014
	HrW	.018	.059	.019	.024
	Husband Depression	--	--	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	--	--
4	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.027	.002	--	--
	WrH	.005	.004	-.001	.043
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	--	--	.033	.002
	HrW	.018	.057	.019	.017
	Husband Depression	--	--	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	--	--
5a	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.030	.016	-.003	.006
	WrH	.007	.001	--	--
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	--	--	.033	.015
	HrW	--	--	.015	.005
	Husband Depression	--	--	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	--	--

Table 11 (Continued)

Model	IV	Husband Self-Esteem	Husband Trust	Wife Self-Esteem	Wife Trust
5b	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.031	.014	--	--
	WrH	.008	-.001	--	--
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	-.006	.011	.032	.018
	HrW	--	--	.014	.005
	Husband Depression	--	--	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	--	--
6	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.031	.015	-.003	.005
	WrH	.008	-.001	--	--
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	-.006	.011	.033	.018
	HrW	--	--	.015	.004
	Husband Depression	--	--	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	--	--
7	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.027	.005	-.005	.013
	WrH	.007	.003	-.002	.045
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	-.006	.007	.033	.002
	HrW	.018	.056	.020	.015
	Husband Depression	--	--	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	--	--
10	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.022	-.005	-.007	.011
	WrH	.005	.000	-.005	.043
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	.024	.012	.024	-.004
	HrW	.014	.049	.015	.012
	Husband Depression	-.113	-.205	--	--
	Wife Depression	--	--	-.116	-.076
11	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.022	-.007	-.009	.009
	WrH	.005	-.002	-.005	.042
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	-.003	.005	.025	-.006
	HrW	.014	.046	.014	.010
	Husband Depression	-.118	-.203	-.048	-.024
	Wife Depression	-.002	-.089	-.113	-.103
12	(1-|HrH-WrH|)	.022	-.009	--	--
	WrH	.004	-.001	-.004	.040
	(1-|WrW-HrW|)	--	--	.023	-.006
	HrW	.014	.046	.014	.012
	Husband Depression	-.115	-.204	--	-.027
	Wife Depression	--	-.094	-.115	-.106

Table 12
Unstandardized Coefficient Comparison by IV

IV	Model	Husband Self-Esteem	Husband Trust	Wife Self-Esteem	Wife Trust
(1-|HrH-WrH|)	1	--	--	--	--
	2	.031	.015	--	--
	3a	.030	.014	--	--
	3b	.027	.003	--	--
	4	.027	.002	--	--
	5a	.030	.016	-.003	.006
	5b	.031	.014	--	--
	6	.031	.015	-.003	.005
	7	.027	.005	-.005	.013
	10	.022	-.005	-.007	.011
	11	.022	-.007	-.009	.009
	12	.022	-.009	--	--
WrH	1	--	--	--	--
	2	.007	.002	--	--
	3a	.008	.014	.000	.045
	3b	.004	-.007	--	--
	4	.005	.004	-.001	.043
	5a	.007	.001	--	--
	5b	.008	-.001	--	--
	6	.008	-.001	--	--
	7	.007	.003	-.002	.045
	10	.005	.000	-.005	.043
	11	.005	-.002	-.005	.042
	12	.004	-.001	-.004	.040
(1-|WrW-HrW|)	1	--	--	--	--
	2	--	--	.033	.016
	3a	--	--	.033	.002
	3b	--	--	.032	.014
	4	--	--	.033	.002
	5a	--	--	.033	.015
	5b	-.006	.011	.032	.018
	6	-.006	.011	.033	.018
	7	-.006	.007	.033	.002
	10	.024	.012	.024	-.004
	11	-.003	.005	.025	-.006
	12	--	--	.023	-.006

Table 12 (continued)

IV	Model	Husband Self-Esteem	Husband Trust	Wife Self-Esteem	Wife Trust
HrW	1	--	--	--	--
	2	--	--	.014	.006
	3a	--	--	.014	.000
	3b	.018	.059	.019	.024
	4	.018	.057	.019	.017
	5a	--	--	.015	.005
	5b	--	--	.014	.005
	6	--	--	.015	.004
	7	.018	.056	.020	.015
	10	.014	.049	.015	.012
	11	.014	.046	.014	.010
	12	.014	.046	.014	.012
Husband Depression	1	--	--	--	--
	2	--	--	--	--
	3a	--	--	--	--
	3b	--	--	--	--
	4	--	--	--	--
	5a	--	--	--	--
	5b	--	--	--	--
	6	--	--	--	--
	7	--	--	--	--
	10	-.113	-.205	--	--
	11	-.118	-.203	-.048	-.024
	12	-.115	-.204	--	-.027
Wife Depression	1	--	--	--	--
	2	--	--	--	--
	3a	--	--	--	--
	3b	--	--	--	--
	4	--	--	--	--
	5a	--	--	--	--
	5b	--	--	--	--
	6	--	--	--	--
	7	--	--	--	--
	10	--	--	-.116	-.076
	11	-.002	-.089	-.113	-.103
	12	--	-.094	-.115	-.106

Table 13

Residual Correlation Comparison Across Models

Model		Husband Trust	Husband Self-esteem	Wife Self-esteem	Wife Trust
2					
	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	.121	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	.067	.144	1	
	Wife Trust	.305	.083	.126	1
3a					
	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	.120	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	.066	.145	1	
	Wife Trust	.310	.083	.134	1
3b					
	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	.061	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	.052	.137	1	
	Wife Trust	.302	.072	.122	1
4					
	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	.060	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	.052	.138	1	
	Wife Trust	.295	.067	.129	1
5a					
	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	.121	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	.065	.143	1	
	Wife Trust	.307	.084	.126	1
5b	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	.123	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	.067	.144	1	
	Wife Trust	.310	.079	.126	1
6	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	.123	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	.065	.143	1	
	Wife Trust	.312	.080	.126	1
7	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	.062	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	.053	.139	1	
	Wife Trust	.295	.067	.133	1

Table 13 (continued)

Model		Husband Trust	Husband Self-esteem	Wife Self-esteem	Wife Trust
10	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	-.019	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	-.022	.121	1	
	Wife Trust	.279	.058	.092	1
11					
	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	-.021	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	-.021	.119	1	
	Wife Trust	.274	.057	.089	1
12					
	Husband Trust	1			
	Husband Self-esteem	-.022	1		
	Wife Self-esteem	-.023	.120	1	
	Wife Trust	.274	.057	.086	1

Appendix C: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Self Traits

Table 14

Goodness-Of-Fit Indicators of Models of Individual Self-Concept and Self-Discrepancy

Spouse		X^2	df	P	RFI	TLI	RMSEA
Husband							
	Self-Concept	1.76	2	.875	.980	1.00	.000
	Self-Discrepancy	.01	2	.994	1.00	1.06	.000
Wife							
	Self-Concept	1.83	2	.916	.975	1.02	.000
	Self-Discrepancy	11.77	3	.008	.740	.792	.097

Table 15

Standardized Factor Loadings for Confirmatory Factor model of Self-Concept

Item	Husbands	Wives
Intelligence	.29	.48
Physical Attractiveness	.56	.57
Likeability	.61	.82
Friendliness	.50	.54
Understanding	.77	.51

Table 16

Standardized Factor Loadings for Confirmatory Factor model of Self-Discrepancy

Item	Husbands	Wives
Intelligence	.50	.27
Physical Attractiveness	.69	.44
Likeability	.41	.78
Friendliness	.35	.69
Understanding	.56	.30